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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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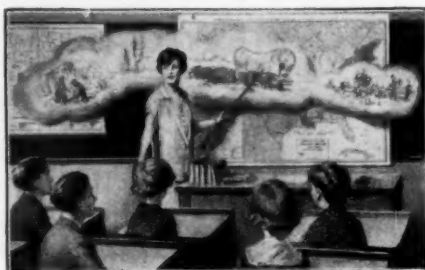
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Our Adolescent Days

Glimpses of the Late 30's through the Sylvan Shades of Old Williamsburgh

BY THEODORE DOUGLAS MacGREGOR

To come upon a file of old newspapers of a period long before most people now living were born is an experience which must be akin to that of discovering the long-buried remnants of a former civilization. At least that was the way I felt when there recently came into my possession a bound volume containing the weekly issues of *The Williamsburgh Gazette and Long Island Advertiser* for the years 1838, 1839, 1840, and part of 1841. For the historically-minded individual, the glimpses of the past obtained by reading these journals of an earlier generation in the United States are fascinating.

This little suburban sheet of the period of Martin Van Buren is chiefly interesting, not because of any great editorial strength or wide grasp of contemporary social and political conditions and tendencies manifested by its unknown editor, but because in its local news items and advertisements and in the general news and articles from other sources it presents an accurate picture, a true cross-section, of the United States in that transitional period of our history, the late thirties and early forties.

By the Federal census of 1840 the population of New York City was 312,710; of Brooklyn, 36,233; of Williamsburgh, 5,094. The latter was largely a suburban residence community right across the East River from what is now DeLancey Street, Manhattan. Its "commuters" traveled back and forth to the city by the Peck's Slip ferry. Today it is a big manufacturing and business section of the Borough of Brooklyn, whose population is two and a quarter millions. Today as you look across and down upon the Williamsburgh district from a Manhattan skyscraper it is scarcely distinguishable from the solid mass of Brooklyn stretching behind it—nothing but Brooklyn, Brooklyn, eastward as far as the eye can reach. Only in imagination can you see the pretty residence village of more than four-score years ago. The name Williamsburgh is chiefly perpetuated by one of the four great bridges which now span the East River, connecting Manhattan with the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens. At the time referred to New York had already begun that rapid growth which, within the span of a single lifetime, was destined to carry it from the status of an overgrown village to that of the world's leading city. At that time it had 190 miles of streets and 69 miles more had been contracted for by the corporation. A me-

tropolis was in the making on the Atlantic seaboard, but eleven-twelfths of the population of the country still lived outside of the larger cities and towns. The frontier line of the United States at this period passed through Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and the western borders of Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana.

The latter part of the fourth decade of the nineteenth century was not a particularly heroic time. The national administration in office was that of Martin Van Buren, whose term in the White House in some quarters has been regarded as rather unsuccessful and inglorious. Nevertheless, it was an interesting period. The nation had expanded territorially and had grown tremendously in population in ten years, leaping from 11,000,000 in 1830 to 17,000,000 in 1840. With such a rapid growth, it is not surprising that our youthful country then suffered from growing pains. The calm opinion and considered judgment of after years are that undoubtedly the strictures and criticisms made by some of our unofficial European observers in those years were, in the main, justified by the crudities and other shortcomings of our adolescent nation.

In 1837 had occurred the great financial panic—partly a result of widespread speculation. During the years of unusual prosperity which had preceded this disaster the national debt had been entirely liquidated and a surplus of nearly \$40,000,000 had accumulated. By act of Congress part of this surplus was distributed among the states. Speculations of all kinds followed from this abundance of money. The number of banks in the United States increased to 700. Many of them were unsound, but their bills were receivable at the land offices in exchange for portions of the public domain. Government lands were being sold for \$1.25 an acre. President Andrew Jackson in 1836, seeing the danger of great loss to the government, issued his famous "specie circular," directing land agents to receive nothing but coin in payment for the lands. A sudden demand was thus created for gold and silver, but there was not enough of these precious metals to meet the demand. The whole structure of American business was shaken. Specie payments were suspended by the banks throughout the country, even including the so-called "pet banks," which had received deposits of public money when the Bank of the United States had ceased to exist and when the national surplus had been dis-

tributed among the States. Business failures were general. Railroad building, which had just started, was suddenly halted. The country was quickly plunged from prosperity into adversity. The hard times lasted for several years. Such was the legacy Andrew Jackson left to Martin Van Buren. Soon after taking office, the latter called an extra session of Congress and recommended that the United States establish a treasury of its own for the safekeeping of its money, instead of turning it over to the banks. The "Independent Treasury" bill was not passed till 1840, but in 1838 most of the banks resumed specie payments.

Times were still bad, however. Late in 1839 the Williamsburgh publication spoke of a copy just received of a newspaper published in Hinds County, Mississippi. It contained only 17½ lines of reading matter; the remainder of the paper was filled with advertisements by sheriffs, collectors, and marshals, and notices of insolvents. In the same issue a New York City paper is quoted as follows:

"Call in at the markets, and learn if the choice cuts go begging. Point to someone who buys shins, liver and rump steaks, or buys fish for economy's sake. Walk home with that young gentleman who has sent a week's provision for a garrison to feed his family of half a dozen, and who will call tomorrow for as much more. As you walk, he will be sure to tell you that money is awful hard."

Has the passage of eighty-seven years made any difference in the popular attitude toward Congress? Judge by this comparison. On July 9, 1838, *The Williamsburgh Gazette and Long Island Advertiser* said:

"This day, it is said, both houses adjourn, after a session unprecedented, we believe, in its duration and for the meager results which have emanated from the legislative doings of the members thereof."

On March 4, 1925, the *Outlook* said:

"This Congress has been foolish, weak, slothful, putting off till tomorrow and tomorrow's morrow what it might have done on the instant, wasting in passion and prejudice the energy that might have gone into good work."

Nevertheless, it must be admitted that the country has made some progress between the 25th and the 68th Congress!

It was a dozen years before the appearance of Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," but the Abolition pot had already begun to boil. It is difficult to determine just what was the real attitude of the *Gazette and Advertiser* towards the Abolition movement. Elijah P. Lovejoy, Abolitionist editor, had been shot, defending his property at Alton, Ill., on November 7, 1837. Wendell Phillips had made his oration on Lovejoy at Faneuil Hall, Boston, on December 8th, and the agitation was getting bitter. Many people in the Northern States, while opposed to slavery, did not approve the extreme views and methods of the Abolitionists. A sidelight on the determined nature of the Abolitionists and their opponents is afforded by this news item of October 31, 1838:

"A great abolition row was kicked up in Danbury, Conn., on Thursday night last, in consequence of the Rev. Mr. Colver attempting to deliver an abolition lecture in the

Baptist Church. A great multitude of the citizens gathered around the church, broke in the windows, pelted the lecturer with rotten eggs, and prepared to ride him on a rail, but he escaped. He resolved, however, to try it again last night, and the trustees of the church gave their consent for him again to occupy their shattered building. The result of the last trial is not yet known here."

Railroads were just beginning to become a practical means of transportation. There was a lot of railroad building in prospect. In commenting on the report of the engineers planning the Cocksackie and Schenectady Railway, August 6, 1838, the paper said:

"With railways to the western agricultural states, and steam navigation across the Atlantic, the imagination pauses, incapable to conceive the boundless prosperity which is opened to our citizens, whether native or adopted."

Trans-Atlantic steamship service had just begun and making the trip across in eighteen days was considered wonderful. On July 2, 1838, the *Gazette and Advertiser* published this editorial:

"The 'Great Western' sailed on Monday with a full complement of passengers and an immense quantity of letters and newspapers. The question of navigating the Atlantic by steam being now fully settled, another very important one arises, and that is, will it pay? For some time to come we say it will not, and we therefore think our Yankee merchants and ship owners quite right in not entering into competition with the rich Islanders in a contest which at present will produce nothing but loss. The honor of the feat may be all very well, in its way, but as merry Jack Falstaff said, 'Would honor set a leg or an arm?'"

On November 21st of the same year was announced the arrival of the "Great Western" with 143 passengers, having made the trip from Liverpool to New York in 18 days. On January 9, 1839, was a summary of European news headed "20 Days Later from Europe." The steamer "Royal William" had just arrived with London papers to the 14th of December. This was thirty years before the first Atlantic cable, so to get European news only three weeks old was considered remarkable.

Traveling by steamboat either on the ocean or on inland waterways was not very safe in those days. Explosions and fires were so frequent that apparently a passenger took his life in his hand when he stepped aboard such a craft. In 1836 upwards of 350 lives were destroyed by accidents to steamers; in 1837 about 700; and in 1838 about 1000. On June 25, 1838, the *Gazette and Advertiser* said editorially: "In no country under the sun that claims the title of 'civilized' is human life held at such a low value as here in the United States of America." This seemed to apply to homicidal as well as accidental deaths for a month later appeared this statement: "With the rise of the thermometer, murders generally became prevalent at the South, as if with the heat of the blood, men's passions began to boil and run beyond all human or divine restraint." The news columns contain frequent accounts of fatal "affrays" and "rencontres," not confined to the South, by any means. Four years later, in his "American Notes," Charles Dickens referred to this subject and reproduced a dozen news items describing such fatal personal encounters, using them as part of his arguments

against human slavery, as it existed in America. He believed that a large number of Americans were brutalized by slave customs. It is a question, however, whether homicides are proportionately any less common in America today. On the very day that I am penning these lines, the papers contain an account of the murder of a night watchman in Williamsburgh, and the unsuccessful pursuit of the robbers and murderers by the police who followed them through the streets of that part of the city. So were he alive and looking us over in 1926 as he did in 1842 the genial Dickens might have to seek another explanation. Nor can we claim superiority today in the matter of accidental deaths, inasmuch as every half hour, day and night, the life is crushed out of somebody somewhere in this country by the automobile, a juggernaut new in this generation.

Duelling, even thirty-four years after the death of Alexander Hamilton at the hands of Aaron Burr, was not discountenanced universally as now. In commenting on the Cilley-Graves duel in Washington, in which Congressman Cilley of Maine lost his life, the paper said editorially on February 24, 1838:

"However men may deplore the custom of duelling—however they may argue against, and declaim on its immorality, there are injuries which all codes of civil and criminal law are manifestly unable to redress, and men have resorted to the practice, to shield themselves from the attacks of the cowardly calumniator, the abject scandal-monger, and the wealthy seducer of female virtue, on that account, and society has sanctioned the practice, as one necessary to uphold the fabric of social order and private morals. But in such a case as this, for the seconds to permit two honorable and highly courageous men to fire at each other more than once, upon a point of *punctilious etiquette*, we pronounce to be cold-blooded murder, if not premeditated assassination."

The long-drawn-out Seminole Indian war in Florida, and the unauthorized attempts of Americans to help Canadian rebels to gain their independence in the "Patriot" uprising, were prominent features of the news at that time, but there were no scare-heads as there would be in modern journals over such an event, for instance, as the burning "Caroline" going over Niagara Falls.

After a full account of the coronation of Queen Victoria in a letter dated June 28, 1838, the paper said:

"The Queen's crown alone cost about *half a million dollars!* and the state coach more than thirty thousand! Such sums lavished upon such objects comport but little with our republican notions of economy."

Upon many occasions there are sarcastic references to the British royalty and belittling remarks about the young queen. Perhaps these were due to the then nearness of our two wars with Great Britain. Certainly there was little of the friendly spirit that now exists in Anglo-American affairs.

The era of display advertising had not yet arrived. The advertising columns of the *Gazette and Advertiser* are very uninteresting typographically, but advertising was resultful even then. On August 13, 1838, the *Gazette and Advertiser* quoted an

article on advertising in the *Baltimore Transcript*, which was quite convincing. It runs like this:

"Much has been said by papers at different times on the subject of advertising and its advantages; but those of the public who never duly considered the subject have, we are inclined to think, regarded what has been said in relation to the matter as prompted rather by a regard to self-interest on the part of the publishers, than founded upon conviction of the advantages which would result from it to the public. It cannot be denied that the patronage of responsible advertisers is at once desirable and profitable, but it is at the same time an undeniable fact that the advantages to the advertiser increase a hundred-fold in comparison with those to the publisher. It has been very justly said that the man who pays liberally for a single sign to be placed in front of his place of business does well; but certainly he does better still, who in addition to this secures the circulation of thousands of signs in every direction and before the eyes of thousands who would never otherwise hear of him or his goods, and this too with the opportunity of describing particularly the articles on hand.

"Our attention was particularly drawn to this subject by a conversation to which we listened yesterday evening, in which facts were detailed which proved conclusively the immense advantages of advertising. A gentleman well known in this city had on hand a large quantity of mulberry trees which he was desirous of selling. He expended about five or ten dollars in advertising in different papers, and in a day or two after persons came forward and made contract with him for trees to the amount of three thousand five hundred dollars. He also had another article on hand, which he advertised, and at once effected sales to the amount of a thousand dollars. These articles, he is well aware, would have remained on his hands, had he not availed himself of the public prints to inform the public of the fact that they were for sale by him. We were forcibly struck with the pertinacity of his remarks, which were sustained by the facts which he adduced. We might give other instances of the advantages to be derived from advertising, for they are constantly coming to our knowledge, but these will suffice. They prove conclusively that he who wishes to have his place of business, his stock and the articles of which he may be in want generally known, will resort to advertisements to accomplish his objects."

It must be that a certain Carl King, a New York manufacturer of straw hats, did not advertise in the Williamsburgh paper, because on July 2, 1838, appeared this criticism of "A New Mode of Puffing":

"The numerous artifices that are resorted to in a large city to gain notoriety and bring grist to a man's mill are not more edifying to the philosophic student than they are laughable to the mere loungeur. Among the numerous original feats of that kind few have amused us more than the gift of a bonnett, from a builder of that piece of furniture, to the Queen of England. This piece of generosity was of course lauded through all the papers—everybody was surprised at the magnanimity of the republican hat-maker, in sending an article of clothing, free gratis for nothing, to her little Majesty who could so little afford to buy one of the donor, or procure one elsewhere....Well, this part of the farce being sufficiently elaborated, the next thing was to exhibit it to the public, and we are told that thirty thousand visitors called at the store to see it—of course, each one either bought some article, or promised to do so; and if the bonnett man took but one dollar of each of his visitors he would have cleared by this "fair business transaction" the moderate sum of \$7250! Well, this game has been used up, and he then publishes the following as a copy of his letter:

"The undersigned begs permission to present to her Majesty a bonnett made from the fine grass, raised in the State of Massachusetts, consisting of three hundred and twenty yards of braid, sewed together by Miss Juline Pont,

and of a quality said to be superior to the Leghorn hats. "The undersigned, in soliciting the honor of her Majesty's acceptance of this specimen of the arts of a young country, attached to England by ties of friendship and of mutual interest, begs permission to add his individual wishes for her Majesty's health and happiness, and the glory and prosperity of the country over which she so successfully reigns.

"CARL KING, First Premium Straw Hat Manufacturer, New York."

"Now we happen to hate all and every kind of humbug, and if our suspicions should be verified in this instance, it will turn out to be a specimen of the loftiest kind, for we truly and verily believe said bonnett still remains in the possession of the aforesaid liberal-minded donor."

But the canny editor of the *Gazette and Advertiser* was not averse to publishing puffs on his own editorial page, as witness this paragraph about Brandreth's Pills: "It is estimated that twelve million boxes of pills are swallowed yearly in the United States, and of this number eight millions are sold by the celebrated Dr. Brandreth." Another "write-up," more subtle and perhaps more justifiable, was that on the advantages of life insurance which appeared on January 16, 1839, and read as follows:

"Benefit of Life Insurance—A merchant of Baltimore, who died a few days ago, effected insurance on his life in March last, at the agency in that city of the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company, for the sum of \$5,000, for which he paid the annual premium of \$100. He also took out a policy with the Baltimore Life Insurance Company for the same amount. He paid to each office the additional premium of \$50 for the privilege of making a voyage to Asia and back. He returned to Baltimore in October, and died of typhus fever. By this timely act of prudence, involving an expense of only \$300, his family will, before the expiration of this week, be put in possession of \$10,000."

On July 16, 1838, is reproduced in two full columns the circular of the showmen, Macomber, Welch & Weeks, announcing the first appearance of a giraffe or camelopard on these shores. The language of the circular is a strange blend of grandiloquence and natural science. Here are brief extracts from this predecessor of the modern commercial "blurb":

"Of this stupendous creature, the tallest, and, in several other respects, the most remarkable specimen of the animal creation, no accurate description has been given in any work on natural history, whether ancient or modern. Found only in those interior regions of Africa, which to the ancients were entirely unknown, and which, even now, are but rarely visited by civilized men, it has seldom been seen in its natural state, by persons capable of describing either its structure or its habits; and the reports of those few who were otherwise competent are left defective by too cursory or too transient observation....

"The two giraffes now exhibiting by Messrs. Macomber, Welch & Weeks, at No. 509 Broadway, were taken in the great Kallharri Desert of South Africa by Mr. John Clayton, who has accompanied them to the United States. They are the only surviving specimens procured in three laborious and perilous expeditions made by Mr. Clayton into the interior of Africa expressly, and they have cost the proprietors more than \$30,000....

"In exhibiting these rare and majestic animals to the American public the proprietors indulge sanguine hopes of being reimbursed the ponderous expenses which they have incurred in procuring them, as well as of suitably rewarding the toils, perils, and privations endured by their respected agent, Mr. Clayton, to whose wonderful perseverance in adventurous and dangerous enterprise, for

the last five years, both they and the American public are indebted for these living specimens of the most magnificent and remarkable creature that is known to exist within the diversified range of the animal creation."

The Williamsburgh weekly seemed to be fair enough to both sides of the controversial subjects of the time. It published some harrowing incidents of slavery, but it also printed an account of the great grief manifested by the slaves of a good master in Virginia upon his death.

On November 7, 1838, it quoted from the "New Yorker," published by H. Greeley & Co., a long diatribe on "The Morals of the Waltz." It included this charming verse on "The Waltzer":

"What! the girl I adore by another embraced?
What! the balm of her lip shall another man taste?
What! touched in the twirl by another man's knee?
What! panting, recline on another than me?
Sir, she's yours—from the grape you have pressed the soft blue,
From the rose you have shaken the tremulous dew;
What you've touched you may take; pretty waltzer, adieu."

In the same issue appeared this advertisement:

DANCING AND WALTZING SCHOOL

"D. J. Lucas most respectfully informs the ladies and gentlemen of Williamsburgh and vicinity, that his school for dancing and waltzing will open at the Kings County Hotel, on Wednesday the 24th October, instant, from 4 to 6 for ladies and masters under 12 years of age, and from 6 to ½ past 8 for gentlemen; after which the company will dance cotillions until 12 o'clock. Tickets to non-subscribers, \$1."

The *Gazette and Advertiser* was apparently a strong advocate of temperance. It frequently published news items showing the untoward results of dallying with the cup. Whenever an accident, homicide, or anything of the kind occurred with Old John Barleycorn at the bottom of it, the most was made of that fact.

From time to time, facts and figures were published concerning the consumption of spirituous liquors. Those statistics are of interest today by way of comparison with conditions in these Volsteadian days. In the issue of October 3, 1838, under the heading of "Hard Times," was printed this item:

"At a late sale of wines by Messrs. Pell of New York, the following extravagant prices were paid: Seventy dollars a dozen for Madeira, vintage of 1796; eighty-two dollars and fifty cents a dozen for the same vintage in bottles of three pints each; some Madeira, fifty years old, in three pint bottles, brought \$150 the dozen."

On January 16, 1839, appeared this paragraph:

"A petition to the Legislature was lately adopted by a large meeting of the citizens of St. Louis, Missouri, to regulate the sale of spirituous liquors in that State, which states that in the city of St. Louis alone there are 205 grog shops, whose aggregate sale during the past year exceeds \$755,560; the population is only 14,000. In this the steamboat bars are not included. There is a grog shop in that city to every 68 persons, including women and children. Average receipt of each grog shop, \$3208."

It is noteworthy that very few of the men who were to be at the forefront of national affairs in the days of the "irrepressible conflict" so surely coming had yet reached any prominence. William H. Seward, it is true, was Governor of New York State, but his chief, Abraham Lincoln, was scarcely beyond his rail-splitting days.

Inasmuch as the Civil War was largely fought by boys in their twenties, most of them had not yet been born or were only in their infancy at this time. Many of the future generals on both sides, including Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee, had yet to earn their spurs in the Mexican War.

Texas was in the midst of its nine years' experiment as a separate republic. It was apparently prosperous. A news item of November 21, 1838, quotes these prices as current in Texas:

Butter, 60 cents per pound; cider, 60 cents a bottle; flour, \$25 a barrel; corn, \$1.50 a bushel; salt, \$10 per sack; brandy, \$3 a gallon; sugar, 18 cents a pound; champagne, \$20 a dozen.

On October 3, 1838, this sidelight is thrown on New York State agriculture:

"The price of wheat at Rochester market last week was \$2 per bushel. This is pretty fair after unprecedented large crops."

So two-dollar wheat which highly elated our Western farmers recently is not a new thing. Farmers in New York State were getting that for it three generations ago!

The sperm whalers of New Bedford were in the heyday of their prosperity, as evidenced by this item published October 31, 1838:

"10,000 bbls. of sperm oil, valued at \$300,000, have been brought into New Bedford recently, by four whale ships."

Boys were boys in those days, too. In their desire to "play hookey" they apparently did not have as efficient truant officers to contend with as New York boys of the present, if this was a true statement in the *Gazette and Advertiser*:

"New York City has 83 flourishing public schools with 17,000 pupils. Yet there are supposed to be near 20,000 children between 5 and 15 years of age, who do not, from neglect of parents and guardians, attend any schools."

In face of this evidence of the shameful lack of interest in education on the part of our great-grandfathers, is it not a wonder that New York has succeeded as well as it has? Perhaps it would not have done so well if a large proportion of its later citizens had not come from elsewhere.

History and the Other Social Studies in Junior and Senior High Schools—A General Survey and Criticism

BY PROFESSOR R. M. TRYON, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Readers of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK have been enjoying a rare privilege during the past few months. It has been their pleasure and profit to have the opportunity to follow month by month a series of discussions of history and the other social studies in junior and senior high schools. The plan of having a different specialist in charge of each grade from seven to twelve, inclusive, has proved to be a wise one. Wise in its general scheme and wiser still in those selected to execute it.

The original plan for the series of treatments of each of the six grades comprising the junior and senior high school included a final article on the series as a whole, an article which was to be in the nature of a general survey and a constructive criticism of the six preceding discussions. Before he had seen any of the papers, and, in fact, almost nine months before the first one appeared, the present writer promised to contribute the concluding article of the series. In his efforts to fulfill the terms of his promise he finally decided to follow Cæsar's plan of dividing Gaul into three parts. Consequently, the reader's attention will be first directed to a survey of the discussions as they relate to the social studies in the junior high school; second, to the social studies in the senior high school; and, third, to some fields of endeavor to which the series of discussions might and could lead.

I. Social Studies in the Junior High School

Fifteen individuals participated in the discussions of the work in Grades VII, VIII, and IX, two in VII, seven in VIII, and six in IX. The discussions of the work in Grade IX are devoted to community civics, in Grade VIII to American History, and in Grade VII to history and geography. This does not mean that community civics is primarily a ninth-year subject and American history an eighth-grade subject. This allocation of the subjects is the result of an agreement among those in charge of the series. The picture, therefore, that one gets from the discussion of community civics in Grade IX and American history in Grade VIII is neither real nor intentional. It simply represents a necessary division of labor.

On reading the fifteen discussions devoted to Grades VII, VIII, and IX the writer of this article felt the need of unification and integration. The fact that he felt the need for unification is no adverse criticism of the discussions. No one would expect a unified treatment of a subject by fifteen persons working more or less independently. It seems to be up to the writer of the general survey to unify the discussions if such can be done. In his effort to do this he made the following outline:

I. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE VII

1. Subjects taught in Grade VII.
2. Schemes and Plans of Correlating and Integrating the Different Social Studies.
 - a. Rugg's Plan.
 - b. Denver Composite Scheme.
 - c. Marshall's Arrangement.
 - d. Correlation with Integrity of Subjects Preserved. A plan worked out under the direction of R. T. Granger, Director of the Social Studies in the Oakland Public Schools.
 - e. Knowlton's Plan as Used in the Lincoln School.
3. Some Examples of the History Now Taught in Grade VII.
 - a. European Beginnings as Presented in the University High Schools, Iowa City.
 - b. World Setting for American History Since 1715 as Worked out in Washington, D. C.
 - c. The United States and Its World Setting as Taught in Baltimore and Berkeley.
4. Place and Treatment Given to Geography in Grade VII.
 - a. The United States and its Relation to Other American Nations.
 - b. The United States and its Relations to Europe and Africa.
 - c. The United States and Its World Relations.
5. Correlation of the Social Studies with English.
6. Importance of Activities in the Social Studies Work in Grade VII.
 - a. Activities in the Denver Course.
 - b. Activities in the Rugg Material.
 - c. Oakland, California Projected Course.
 - d. John Muir Junior High School, Los Angeles.
7. The Social Studies Workroom or Laboratory.
 - a. Workroom in the Junior High School of the University of California.
 - b. Handwork in the Laboratory.
 - (1) Map-making.
 - (2) Making pictures.
 - (3) Illustrating the meaning of words.
8. Nature of the Objectives and of the Outcomes.

II. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE VIII

1. General Situation in the Eighth Grade.
 - a. Changes Noted During the Past 10 Years.
 - b. Influence of the Committee on Social Studies.
 - c. The Denver Outline for Grade VIII.
2. Training for Citizenship in Indianapolis, Ind.
 - a. Civics a part of History, Arithmetic, Art, Geography, English, and Everything Else.
 - b. Civic Organizations and Clubs in Grade VIII.
3. The Social Study Curriculum in the D. B. Oliver Junior High School, Pittsburgh—Topics Considered in Grade VIII.
 - a. Organization and Maintenance of Our Schools.
 - b. Keeping Public Opinion Uniform throughout America.
 - c. How America Gets Along with Other Countries.
 - d. Disputes for the Settlement of which Americans Have Gone to War.

4. A Measure of Factual Achievement in American History—Results of a 200-item test in Grades VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII.
5. Textbooks in United States History.
6. Courses of Study Published by State Departments of Public Instruction in the States of Arizona, Connecticut, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.
8. Recent City and Other Courses of Study as follows: Baltimore, Omaha, Sioux City, Francis W. Parker School, and University of Iowa Junior High School.
9. Classroom Devices.
 - a. Dramatization.
 - (1) Helpful books—a list of nine.
 - (2) Useful articles—a list of twelve.
 - b. Music.
 - (1) Historical treatment of patriotic songs.
 - (2) Musical records arranged by periods.
10. Visual Aids in United States History.
 - a. The cinema.
 - b. Stereographs.
 - c. Lantern Slides.
 - d. Objects and Models.
 - e. Illustrations in Textbooks.

III. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE IX

1. The Social Studies in the Junior High School.
2. Viewpoints of a Course in Community Civics.
3. Content of a Course in Community Civics.
 - a. Guiding Principles for the Selection of the Content.
 - b. General Organization of the Material for Teaching Purposes.
4. The Textbook in Community Civics.
5. Supplementary Reading Material for a Course in Community Civics.
 - a. General Reference Books.
 - b. A Classroom Library.
 - c. A School Library.
6. Laboratory Equipment for Community Civics.
 - a. Magazines.
 - b. Maps.
 - c. Statutes, Ordinances, Charters, Constitutions.
 - d. Legal Papers.
 - e. Public Reports.
 - f. Visual Aids.
7. Elements in Effective Teaching.
 - a. Establishment of Motive on the Part of the Pupil.
 - b. Pupil Activity.
 - c. Spirit of Co-operation.
8. Group Activities and Community Contacts for Grade IX.
9. Laboratory Work in the Community in Connection with a Course in Community Civics.
10. Creating Pupil Interest in a Reading Program for Civics.
11. Use of Graphs in Teaching Civics.

12. Student Reactions to a Community Life Course.
13. Measurements in Civics.

It will be observed from the foregoing outline that according to the conception of the writer of this article eight main topics were discussed in the treatment of the work in Grade VII, ten in the articles on the work in Grade VIII, and thirteen in Grade IX. Because of the nature of the work in Grade VII less unity was attained in the discussions here than was attained in Grades VIII and IX. Probably, if Miss Pierce could at this late day rearrange the discussions she organized, she could make them tell a more unified and consecutive story. The outline for this grade reveals a somewhat heterogeneous mass, arranged in a more or less hit-and-miss manner. In the six discussions devoted to Grade IX one finds an approach at least to a body of coherent material. With the single exception of the treatment of measurements in civics, the discussions are kept closely to the general subject for this grade.

II. Social Studies in the Senior High School

Eighteen different persons participated in the discussion of the social studies in the senior high school, Miss Morehouse, who had charge of the work in Grade XI, secured the assistance of five individuals. Dr. Dawson, in charge of the work in Grade XII, enlisted the aid of eleven contributors. Mr. Knowlton chose to do Grade X alone.

In order to get a picture of the contribution of these eighteen persons before the reader, the plan of presenting a general outline something like the one above is used. This outline follows:

I. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE X

1. General Point of View—A Defense of the Report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship.
2. Findings of the Historical Inquiry.
3. The Tenth Grade in the Gambrill Report.
4. World History—Mission High School, San Francisco.
5. Modern History—University High School, Chicago.
6. The Iowa State University High School Course.
7. A Year of European History—Pennsylvania.
8. The Modern World—Maryland.
9. Modern History or History of World Civilization—New Jersey.
10. World History—Connecticut.
11. World History in Kansas and Oregon.
12. European or General History—Virginia.
13. General History and Modern History—Oklahoma.
14. Modern History—Minnesota.
15. Objectives and Methods—Missouri, Louisiana, Texas.
16. Recent Textbooks.
17. Problems of the Tenth Grade and their Solution.
18. The Denver Experiment.
19. Experimental Work in the Lincoln School.

II. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE XI

1. Aims of American History Courses as Revealed in City and State Syllabi.
 - a. Mastery of Facts.
 - b. Development of Good Citizenship.
 - c. Appreciation of and Devotion to high Ideals.
2. Methods of Teaching as Revealed in Syllabi.
 - a. Topical Treatment.
 - b. Chronology Emphasized.
 - c. Problem Method.
3. Balance and Emphasis in American History.
 - a. Change in the Kind of History.
 - b. Change in Emphasis on Periods.
4. Nationalism in American History Courses.
 - a. European Dependency.
 - b. Acquiring a Distinct National Life.
 - c. Testing of Nationality.
 - d. Entrance of United States into the Family of Nations.
5. The Extension of American History.
 - a. Emphasis on Foreign Relations.
 - b. United States History Taught as a Part of World History.
6. The Long-Unit Way of Organizing a Course in History.
 - a. Mastery of Facts.
 - b. Mind Pictures of the Occurrence.
 - c. Expression of Understanding.
7. Standards of Student Performances.
8. Separation of the Learning Process.
 - a. Technique used in University of Chicago High School.
 - b. A method Developed at University of Minnesota High School.
9. Classroom Procedure in American History under the Dalton Plan.
10. Why Americans and Canadians Should Study the Other Country.
11. Why Study Latin-American History?
12. A Small Library for Teaching Latin-American History and Government.
13. A Brief Basic Bibliography for Eleventh Year American History.
14. Recent Supplementary Material in American History.

III. TOPICS DISCUSSED IN GRADE XII

1. American History and Problems of Democracy in the Atlantic City High Schools.
2. Economics and Problems of Democracy in the Atlantic City High Schools.
3. Shall College Entrance Credit be given to Secondary School Courses in Social Science.
4. A Plea for Problems of Democracy in the 12th Grade.
5. The Problem Approach in 12th Grade Social Studies.
 - a. The Nature of the Problem Approach.
 - b. Advantages of Problem Approach.
 - c. What is a Problem?
6. The Subject-Survey Method of Approach in the Social Studies.

- a. Character of Subject-survey Approach.
- b. Advantages.
- c. Why Subject-survey is Better than Problem Approach.
7. A Plea for a Survey Course in the Social Studies in the High School.
8. Social Science in the 12th Year—a Unified Course.
9. Elementary Economics and Socialized Civics in the 12th Year.
10. Another plea for a Problems of Democracy Course in the 12th Year.
11. A Twelfth-Grade Course in Sociology for the High School.
12. A Course in Social Problems for the Secondary School.
13. Economics and Problems of American Democracy in New Jersey.
14. Leading Grade XII Texts.
15. History in Grade XII.
16. Other Courses in Grade XII.
 - a. Civics.
 - b. Economics.
 - c. Sociology.
 - d. Problems of democracy.
17. Need of Trained Teachers of the Social Studies.
18. Purposes Sought in Grade XII in the Courses in the Social Studies.
19. What Shall the 12th Grade Curriculum in the Social Studies Be?
20. Laboratory Work in Civics for First-Year College Students.

A mere glance at the array of topics in the foregoing outline is all that is needed to impress one with the grand array of opinions, impressions, facts, and conditions set forth in the articles on social studies in the Senior High School. There seem to be nineteen separate topics treated in Grade X, fourteen in Grade XI, and twenty in Grade XII. If one should analyze many of the topics listed in Grade XII one would have a much longer outline and probably some large topics not included in the outline above.

For one who wants a survey of the present status of history in the tenth grade, Mr. Knowlton's discussion will be of great value. If his description of the courses offered in a number of places does not satisfy the reader, the original sources cited by Mr. Knowlton can be secured. Judging from the number of inquiries that the writer has for material like Mr. Knowlton cites, the information will be welcomed by many workers in the field. We ought to have surveys of this kind more frequently than we have been accustomed to getting them.

Fewer topics are discussed in the material on Grade XI than in that on each of Grades X and XII. However, when the topics as shown in the outline are taken into consideration, one finds an array of material equal to that found in Grade X and approximating that found in Grade XII. Omitting topics 10, 11, 12, there is presented for Grade XI

a unified and forceful discussion. While the articles on "Why Study Latin-American History" and the material found in topics 10 and 12 are all useful and appropriate in their place, they seem a little out of place in a discussion of American history in the eleventh grade, especially when American history as treated in the other discussions means a history of the United States. The writer of this survey was much interested in the topics bearing on Canadian and Latin-American history, but he could not discover that they had any integral connection with the main theme of the body of the discussion.

Mr. Dawson was fortunate in his selection of those who contributed to the discussion of the work in Grade XII. The writer is, as no doubt many readers are, interested in knowing the views of Hughes, Elwood, Towne, Ashley, Thompson, Burch, and Miss Morehouse on the twelfth grade course in the social studies. Inasmuch as each of these individuals is author or co-author of a textbook to be used in the twelfth grade, their views ought to count for much more than the view of the same number of persons who have given the matter little thought. Evidently from what these experts say about the course in Problems in Democracy there is yet a chance for an argument as to the advisability of this course in the high school. Mr. Ashley is certain that other courses are more satisfactory, and Mr. Hughes is just as certain that there is no substitute for such a course. Other places have had the same experience with the course that Mr. Ashley reports. The University of Chicago High School experimented with a course in Modern Problems for five or six years and finally displaced it with courses in socialized Civics and Economics. There are persons who feel that if a Problems course is given at all in the senior high school it had better appear in the tenth grade rather than in the twelfth. Appearing here it would serve as an introduction rather than as a summary. If time could be found for a social study other than history in each of the senior high school grades, an introduction to the social studies might with profit appear in Grade X, a socialized course in economics in Grade XI and a socialized course in Civics in Grade XII. To get the most benefit out of such an arrangement, all of the courses would need to be required ones. If three years could not be had for them, a year for the introduction and a semester each for the other two would not be bad.

Probably the writer will not be getting beyond the bounds of his part in the general discussion if he gives his own view with respect to a course in Problems of American Democracy in the senior high school. His close connection with the course in Modern Problems tried out in the University of Chicago High School and finally displaced with other courses of a different type led him from the position of advocate to the one of opposition. He is now opposed to such a course as now given and administered. He sees no more justification for it than he does for a course in general science in the twelfth year to take the place of Chemistry, Physics, Botany, or Zoology.

Society needs citizens who can think economically, politically, and socially, and the best way, in the writer's judgment, to produce such citizens is to train them in the subjects of economics, sociology, and political science. Where but one year is available for social studies other than history in the senior high school, Minnesota's plan of giving one-third of a year to sociology, one-third to economics, and one-third to political science seems to the writer a better plan than the one of attempting to disregard these subjects altogether. If material from the fields of economics, sociology, and political science is valuable, time must be found to do substantial work in these fields rather than attempt to throw them together in a so-called Problems course.

III. Two Fields of Endeavor Not Touched in the Articles

Inasmuch as the length of this article ought to be kept within reasonable bounds, it seems advisable to pass on at this juncture to the third part of the discussion; namely, a consideration of some fields of endeavor to which the whole series of articles under review might lead. I mean by this that the editor of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK might stimulate a similar series of articles in the near future organized on a somewhat different basis. For example, two very important phases of the social studies in the junior and senior high school were not touched in this series. I refer to methods of determining the content of the social studies and the various items that ought to be worked out in detail in a well-rounded course of study in history or in any other social study. Of these two outstanding topics, consideration will be first directed to methods of determining content.

To the writer's knowledge, fifteen methods of determining the content of the social studies have been used or are now being employed. An adequate treatment of each of these methods would lead one far afield. Rather than attempt an extended discussion, a much more useful thing will be done. The form may have the appearance of a bibliography, yet the information presented is in an orderly fashion. The outline appears below and seems to be self-explanatory:

METHODS OF DETERMINING CURRICULUM-CONTENT IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

I. Analysis of Political Party Platforms.

A. Original Study.

1. Bassett, B. B., "The Content of the Course of Study in Civics," *Seventeenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1918), 63.

B. Discussions of Original Study.

1. *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 228 f.
2. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*, Study, 47, pp. 308 ff.
3. *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 243 f.

II. Securing the Judgments of Representative Citizens and Groups of Citizens.

A. Original Studies.

1. Cocking, W. D., "The Attitude of the Public to the Teaching of Citizenship," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Iowa, 1923.

2. Breeze, Bertha E., "What Constitutes Good Citizenship?" *School Review*, XXXII (1924), 534 ff.

B. Discussion of Original Studies.

1. *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 244 ff.
2. *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, p. 227 f.
3. Burton, W. H., "Nature and Content of Civic Information Possessed by Chicago Children of the Sixth Grade Level," unpublished doctor's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1924.

III. Analysis of Newspapers, Periodicals, Magazines, Readers' Guides, and Indexes to Periodical Literature.

A. Original Studies.

1. Washburn, C. W., and others, "Basic Facts Needed in History and Geography; A Statistical Investigation," *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 216 ff.
2. Davis, Maude, "Topics to Be Included in Instruction in Civics as Indicated by an Analysis of Current Periodicals," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1921.
3. Wells, C. D., "The Political Science of Everyday Life as Revealed by an Analysis of Newspapers and Periodicals," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1925.
4. Bulebonn, I. K., "Civic and Social Deficiencies as Indications of Citizenship Objectives," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1925.
5. Sahron, J. A., "An Analysis of Problems by the Newspaper Method," reported in *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), p. 242 f.
6. Bagley, C. C., "The Determination of Minimum Essentials in Geography and History," *Fourteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1915), pp. 131-139.

B. Discussions of Original Studies.

1. *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 231, 233, 235 ff., and 251 ff.
2. *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for Study of Education, Part II (1923), 242 f. and 251 ff.
3. Mohr, Louise, and Washburn, C. W., "The Winnetka Social-Science Investigation," *Elementary School Journal*, XXIII (1922), 267 ff.
4. THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XIV (1925), 402 ff.

IV. Pooling of Opinion of Leading Authorities by Means of Questionnaire Method.

A. Original Studies.

1. Wooters, "Elementary American History Standards," *School and Home Education*, XXXIV (1914), 152 ff.
2. Bagley, W. C., and others, "A Method of Determining Misplacement of Emphasis in Seventh and Eighth-Grade History," *Seventeenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1918), pp. 63 ff. (Encyclopedia and newspaper methods are also considered in this article.)

B. Discussions of Original Studies.

1. *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 248 ff.
2. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*, Study 31, pp. 245 f.

V. Analysis of Textbooks in History and the Other Social Studies.

A. Original Studies.

1. Bagley, W. C., and Rugg, H. O., *Content of American History as Taught in the Seventh and Eighth Grades*, Bulletin No. 16, School of Education, University of Illinois, 1916. Found in a briefer form in *Sixteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1917), pp. 143 ff.
2. Bagley, W. C., "The Determination of Minimum Essentials in Geography and History," *Fourteenth*

- Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1915), pp. 141-146.
3. Bowdler, G. A., "The Geographical Element in Textbooks in American History for the Seventh and Eighth Grades," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1919.
 4. Rugg, Earl, "An Analysis of Social Science Textbooks," *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 256 ff.
 5. Evans, G. A., "The Place Element in Social Science Textbooks," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1923.
 6. Snyder, R. C., "An Analysis of the Content of Elementary and High School History Texts," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1919.
 7. Brooks, T. D., "A Study of the Present Practice in the Teaching of Civics as Indicated by Textbooks and other Teaching Material," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1920.
- B. Discussion of and Reports on Original Studies.
1. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*, Study 32, pp. 246 ff.
 2. *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 257 ff.
 3. *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 255 f.
- VI. Analysis of Books (other than Texts) in Sociology, Economics, and Political Science.
- A. Original Studies.
1. Horn, Ernest, "Possible Defects in the Present Content of American History as Taught in the Schools," *Sixteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1917), pp. 156 ff.
 2. Bassett, B. B., "The Historical Information Necessary for an Intelligent Undertaking of Civic Problems," *Seventeenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1918), pp. 81 ff.
 3. Rugg, H. O., and others, "Problems of Contemporary Life as a Basis for Curriculum Making in the Social Studies," *Twenty-second Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1923), pp. 260 ff.
- B. Discussion of and Reports on Original Studies.
1. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*, Study 48, pp. 311 ff., and Studies 33 and 34, pp. 251 ff.
 2. *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 221 ff., 240 ff., and 246 ff.
 3. THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XIV (1923), pp. 391 ff.
- VII. Analysis of Courses of Study in History and Other Social Studies.
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 3. Kock, Hazel E., "The Geographical and Historical Reading Matter Recommended by English Departments in High Schools," unpublished master's thesis, The University of Chicago, 1921.
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 10. Committee of American Sociological Society, 1920.
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 12. New Committee of 8, A. H. A. and N. E. A., 1921.
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- X. Analysis of Examination Questions in History.
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- XI. Searching for references that one is apt to meet in contemporary life as revealed in best sellers, short stories, jokes, comic pictures in newspapers, and legends of movie picture shows.
- A. Original studies: Peters, C. C., "Detailed Analysis of One Objection of Cultural Education," Appendix B, pp. 419 ff. in *Foundations of Educational Sociology*, 1924.
- B. Discussion of and report on original study: *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 234.
- XII. Determining the Civic Activities that Laymen actually perform in the Course of their Daily Life.
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1. Alderman, G. H., "What Iowa Laymen Should Know About Courts and Law," *School Review*, XXX (1922), pp. 360 ff.
 2. Goss, R. R., "What Civic Knowledge Is Needed by an Indiana Layman," unpublished master's thesis, Indiana University, 1922.
- B. Discussions of and reports on original studies: *Third Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, February, 1925, pp. 265 and 266.
- XIII. Analysis of Encyclopedias for Material in the Social Aspects of Life.
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 2. Bagley, W. C., and others, "A Method of Determining Misplacement of Emphasis in Seventh and Eighth-Grade History," *Seventeenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1918), pp. 90 ff.
- XIV. Setting Up Specific Objectives and Principles and Seeking Subject Matter to Satisfy Them.
- Inasmuch as no original studies or discussions of any sort are listed under Number XIV above, a word of explanation is needed to explain why it is included here. At the present time the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has a number of committees working on courses of study in History, Science, English, Art, Physics, and other junior and senior high school subjects. These com-

mittees are using the method mentioned in Number XIV. Little progress has been made to date. The writer is chairman of the Committee on Social Studies. He is not at all sure at this writing that the method is a practical one. He sees certain handicaps in it that seem unovercomable.

In the articles by Miss Morehouse and Mr. Knowlton there was much attention given to courses of study in history. Probably the best ones in the country were discussed by these writers. In sources of this character one finds best practices in history, in sociology, in economics, and the rest of the social studies. Now, if something can be done to improve even one of these courses, much good will result therefrom. Without any extended comment the following is proposed as a table of contents for a high school course of study in history.

WHAT A COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS MIGHT CONTAIN

1. A statement of the point of view and principles to apply—both general and specific.
2. A statement of general objectives for the subject and specific objectives for the particular course.
3. A statement of general standards of attainment for the subject and specific ones for the particular course.
4. A general organization of the course in conformity with the principles, objectives, and standards set forth above.
5. A classified library, as well as a select one, of about twelve books. Both for the pupil.
6. For each unit of instruction in the general organization.
 - a. Objectives.
 - b. Standards in terms of things to do and know.
 - c. Best content reference material for pupil and for teacher.
 - d. General organization of the unit for teaching purposes.
 - e. Tests in terms of standards of attainment.
 - f. Teaching exercises and suggestions.
 - g. Best material for making the unit concrete. Historical fiction could apply here.
7. Discussion of methods of procedure.
8. Bibliography for teacher of aids in the field.
9. A treatment of the use and abuse of dates—Events and a list to know in each field.
10. The personal element in history and a list of persons to know and identify in each field.
11. The place element in history and the maps to make in each field.
12. Historic terms to know and use in each field.

Courses in Civics, Sociology, Economics, Problems of American Democracy in junior and senior high schools ought to contain all of the items listed above except 9, 10, 11, and 12. Some items that might appear in these courses that are not listed above are suggestions for field trips, laboratory work, the making of diagrams, charts, graphs, posters, and other similar pupil-activities.

As a concluding remark, it ought to be said for the benefit of some who may not know the fact that there is now enough material objectively determined in the investigations listed above to make a semester course in the following subjects: Civics, Sociology, Economics, and Problems of American Democracy. With content thus determined and all of the details mentioned above worked out, courses in these subjects could be made which would be excellent beginnings in the solution of some problems relating to curriculum-making in the junior and senior high schools.

The Training in Universities of High School Teachers of the Social Studies

BY PROFESSOR RICHARD H. SHRYOCK, DUKE UNIVERSITY

The training of prospective teachers of the Social Studies involves a number of more or less distinct processes, the proper co-ordination of which presents one general problem, and each of which in turn presents special problems of its own. These several processes, briefly stated, are those of (1) general academic training,¹ (2) general professional training in educational subjects, (3) familiarization with the content of the Social Studies that are later to be taught, (4) professional training in the special methods of teaching these studies, (5) observation of experienced teaching, (6) practice teaching, (7) guidance in the selection and securing of positions, and (8) advanced work in any or all phases of the teaching of these subjects, to be given teachers after several years of practical experience. Much can be done for future teachers by an institution which does not carry on every one of these processes, but

a well-rounded and complete training, extending over some years, should include them all. The following suggestions are made with the intent of outlining what would seem the best methods of procedure in each phase of the work mentioned. They are intended to be of a practical nature, and make haste to deny acquaintance with that disreputable character, the counsel of perfection. In any case, however, where for one reason or another they prove inapplicable, it is hoped that they may serve as objective standards to be approximated so far as time and tide permit. In any case, moreover, wherein these plans may not commend themselves to the better judgment of other teachers, it is to be remembered that the rather emphatic manner in which they are stated is not intended to promote controversy, and is more a method of presentation than an expression of dogmatic certainty. It is assumed that the train-

ing work to be considered is that conducted by the universities, and that the students being trained intend to teach in the secondary schools. These assumptions are made, first, in view of the fact that in the East the universities train the majority of those secondary school teachers who receive any formal professional training;² and, second, because of the fact that almost all students who receive special preparation in the social studies later teach in the secondary schools. With these assumptions in mind the several phases of training mentioned may be considered in turn.

It may be taken for granted, with regard to the general cultural education of prospective teachers, that as liberal a training along this line will be given as is consistent with the requirements of professional education. In the relationship obtaining between cultural and professional education the school of education usually finds itself in that position wherein these two general processes can and must be carried on simultaneously. In this respect it does not seem so fortunately situated as are the progressive schools devoted to such advanced professions as those of law and medicine, wherein a complete education in a liberal arts college is usually a requirement for admission, and which therefore need not sacrifice either phase of work for the other. Educators may take solace in the realization, however, that there are certain arts, notably that of music, wherein the demands of professional education reach so far down into the years of the student as almost to preclude any general high school or college training whatever.³ The school of education, therefore, like the undergraduate college of business, occupies a sort of mid-position between the two extremes mentioned and supplies both the cultural and professional work in the college years. It is obvious that this parallelism raises the practical question of the relative time to be devoted to each field.

There has been some suspicion that duplication and overlapping has occurred between the several courses in education; that is, in the professional courses, and that considerable padding has been sometimes inserted into such courses. This is nothing but a suspicion that more time has been required for the professional subjects than their present content would justify—and necessarily at the expense of the academic subjects.⁴ On the other hand, there has also been some feeling that too many arts courses are required of education students, or, at least, that these arts courses should be more open to selection and modification in the interests of professional needs than they are at present. It is hardly necessary to observe that the first view noted is one commonly held in arts college faculties, while the second obtains rather widely in the schools of education. Here at the outset one is faced by the fact that in training teachers in universities the general problem is not only complicated by the necessity of co-ordinating professional with academic studies, but is made worst confounded by the necessity of co-ordinating the work of the education faculty with that of an inde-

pendent arts faculty—a problem not always so difficult of solution in the teachers' colleges.⁵

Any attempt to decide the relative merits of the two views mentioned above—to decide whether more time has been wasted in the past upon arts courses or education courses—offers delightful possibilities as a subject for debate, but little promise of practical conclusions. The present purpose is merely to note what now seems a fair division of time between the two divisions of the student teachers' curriculum. One ratio which has been recommended is that of the Cincinnati Conference of the National Council for the Social Studies,⁶ a ratio which will be accepted as a norm throughout the suggestions which follow, unless otherwise noted. A school of education requiring 120 semester hours for graduation, it was held, should require twelve hours' work in courses in education, presumably exclusive of time given to practice and observation work. This would mean but four three-hour courses for one semester each in strictly professional courses, an amount that seems to the present writer too small. The course in special methods of teaching the social studies, which would certainly be one of the professional courses required of prospective teachers of those studies, alone requires four or even six semester hours if its full possibilities are to be realized. Other educational subjects, which should be required of all prospective teachers, are courses of a relatively elementary character in Principles of Education, The Secondary School, and (possibly) the History of Education and Educational Psychology. The word "possibly" is inserted before the last two, because these subjects especially have suffered from poor teaching in the past, and this has led to some demand to discard them altogether, especially the History of Education.⁷ If this subject can be made "live" and stimulating, and educational psychology real and "practical" in character (which it usually is not), they should be retained. If not, they should be consigned to that educational limbo towards which they now seem to be heading.⁸ If they can be reformed and maintained, however, they, added to the others named, would give approximately the following minimum total in semester hours necessarily devoted to courses in education proper:

Principles of Education.....	3	semester	hours
The Secondary School	4	"	"
(Including Administration)			
History of Education	3	"	"
Educational Psychology	3	"	"
Special Methods	4	"	"

—
Total 17 hours

As a matter of fact other professional courses are sometimes offered, such as Educational Tests, Adolescent Psychology, etc., and more or less confusion obtains in both teachers' colleges and schools of education with regard to which subjects are most essential,⁹ but those noted above seem best warranted both in theory and in practice. They total seventeen hours in time requirements, which is five more than

is allowed in the Cincinnati standard. Even this twenty hours may seem to some educators a small proportion to be devoted to professional subjects out of a total of 120, but it must be remembered that this limited number is dependent not only upon the demands of the academic subjects, but also upon the inherent limitations of the students themselves. It is quite difficult to make the content of education courses "real" or interesting to even serious-minded students who have had no contacts with actual classroom practice. It is all too intangible or "up in the air" to these students. Other professions are not so handicapped. No medical student, *e. g.*, who has upon the beginning of his professional work taken his turn in the dissecting laboratory can feel thereafter that his science deals with intangibles. Not so with education students—there is nothing definite that the beginner can put his hands upon. *The student who has never taught is psychologically incapable of taking interest in or benefiting by more than a minimum amount of educational theory, and the effort which some schools have made to foist more upon him is apt to result only in a positive and unfortunate distaste for the subject.*

So much for the presentation of professional subjects proper. The next phase of training to be considered is the orientation of the students in the field of the social studies later to be taught. Here again one faces at once the problem *par excellence* of the university school of education, that of correlating the interests and activities of the education and arts faculties. If an education student is to teach history and must be orientated in that field which should direct this mystic process, the department of history or the department of education? The answer will be easier to give when the nature of such orientation work is made clear. Two types of courses should be given, first intensive courses in special fields of one or more of the social studies; and, second, general or "content" courses covering the same broad fields which are surveyed in the secondary school subjects. The value of the intensive courses is obvious in that such work, when well taught, lends familiarity with the methods and viewpoints of the sciences involved. Such work should be entirely within the control of the arts faculty concerned, the education authorities interesting themselves only to the extent of determining the amount of it to be required. The value of the content courses, on the other hand, has long been emphasized (and sometimes overemphasized) in the normal schools. Such courses orientate the student in the actual body of facts he is later to teach. These courses should be planned by the education faculty, working so far as possible in co-operation with the arts department concerned, if that department is willing to give the courses. If not, however, the education faculty should be authorized to conduct them independently of said department.

The student should major in one of the social sciences, which "major" should mean the taking of about 18 semester hours' work (out of the total of 120) in that science, and these 18 should be divided about

evenly between the two types of courses noted. The major should, save in exceptional cases, be taken in history,¹⁰ for the simple reason that this subject still supplies the bulk of the content taught in secondary school social studies courses. In connection with this history major, however, it is imperative that at least an equal amount of work; that is, about 18 hours, be required in the other social sciences. These latter should always include the "big three"—economics, government, and sociology, and, in some cases, certain courses in the "little three"—geography, psychology, and ethics. The so-called "Introduction to Civilization" composite course sometimes now given may be counted as a course in the social studies if its actual content so warrants. Despite an early recognition of its need,¹¹ *it is this work in "the other social studies" which is still commonly neglected today, many schools still requiring only the training in history, in blissful indifference to the fact that it is no longer only history which is to be taught.*¹²

Of the eighteen hours required in the history major, nine should be consciously organized as "content courses"; that is, they should be survey courses relating to the same fields as those covered in the typical secondary school courses. These courses should, therefore, in conformity with present tendencies in secondary school curricula, relate to (1) Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History to 1789, (2) World History since 1789, and (3) American History. If the History Department happens to give a "General Course" covering one of these fields it might be counted as a content course. At the same time it is to be noted that there should be content courses given to parallel any social studies course which is given so frequently in the secondary school as to justify training in its subject-matter. Such content work in the other social studies should be directed just as is the similar work in history, and should count as part of the 18 hours suggested for these studies. The aim of all such courses is, as was noted, to enrich the student's knowledge of the subject-matter he is later to teach. This orientation in content is valuable, (1) because the interpretations of subject-matter offered by an able scholar are stimulating in themselves and will sometimes recur to the student when he interprets the same material for his future classes, and (2) because a lack of subject-matter training forces the young teacher to "pick it up for himself" as he goes along. This is difficult for the average teacher, especially in his first year of teaching, when in the very nature of the case he needs most of his time for other pressing duties. If, under these circumstances, he does not know his subject, he may fall into that too common habit of just keeping ahead of the class in the textbook; whereas, if he can take a rich knowledge of the subject for granted, he is the better able to devote all the time necessary to the other demands made upon him.

The belief that an intensive training in certain small corners of a subject enables the student to

pick up for himself an adequate teaching knowledge of the whole, is not always substantiated by experience. At best it has hardly been so demonstrated as to make it a safe basis for present plans.

A third possible value inherent in this content work is the opportunity to use it incidentally for training in the methods of teaching. If the content course can be given by the same man who gives the work in specific methods this teacher may offer a "professional treatment" of the subject-matter; that is, he may suggest the manner in which the material he is presenting to the students should later be presented by *them* to the children.¹³ Such suggestions would perhaps be given incidentally and as side-remarks, but might prove specifically valuable. The student who kept an adequate record of such a course would then have for future use a series of notes, let us say, which would include (1) certain content facts, (2) interpretive comments thereupon, and (3) pedagogical suggestions, relating directly and specifically to the other two. Such notes might well be helpful to the beginner in his first year or two of classroom experimentation. When practicable, therefore, one or more of the content courses should be given by the teacher of methodology, just to insure this professional treatment of subject-matter. If a general course is being given in a large university, and the education students enrolled in it constitute a minority, the methodology teacher might well organize one or two sections of this general course entirely from among the education students, and then only the education sections would be given this "professional treatment." Incidentally, again, the adoption of this plan may prove for these students both a personal and a professional introduction to the same teacher's course in methodology, and the teacher's introduction to his future methods students. Last, but not least, it seems only fair to assume that the teacher of methods is a good teacher, and, this being true, he may so present the content course as to inspire his hearers with a real enthusiasm for the subject they are to teach. Other scholars may do this, too, but the methods teacher *always* should be able to, *and this is no small service to those who would in turn inspire the children!*

The chief danger which would seem to inhere in content courses planned as suggested above is the possibility of their degenerating into more or less glorified secondary school courses. This danger can probably be avoided if it is kept well in mind. It involves the old problem of grading the subject, which is a difficult but not an insoluble one. There should be less danger of it in a university than in the average normal school.

To sum up at this point the matter of orientation courses, it will be observed that the suggestions herein made would provide for the following minimum time demands upon the curriculum:

History:

Intensive courses	9 semester hours
Content courses	9
Economics	6
Government	6
Sociology	3
Content course in "Problems of Democracy"	3
Total	36 semester hours

Perhaps the most important single phase of teacher training is that relating to the course in the special methods of teaching the social studies. This course should be correlated, first, with the other professional subjects, leaving to them in most cases the more general aspects of educational problems and procedure.¹⁴ It can, secondly, be correlated with the content orientation courses by virtue of the professional treatment given the subject-matter therein. If this dual correlation obtains it is obvious that both the professional and content courses will serve in a measure as introductions to the methods course, assuming that they precede it in the curriculum.

The aim of the methods course is not, let it be said at once, the impossible task of making good teachers out of poor ones. Every sane observer realizes that those qualities which make for good teaching are, in the long run, native ability, experience, and that mystical thing known as personality—in the words of the go-getters, "personality plus." The aim of the methods class (and, to some extent, of all courses in education) is simply to prepare the student for a relatively rapid realization of the best teaching which his potential ability makes possible. In the words of an American Historical Association committee report on the subject, the aim is "to shorten the period of adjustment which every beginner, however well informed, must pass through before he becomes an accomplished teacher."¹⁵ *It is to be emphasized that this need for accelerating the new teacher's realization of all his potential abilities is peculiarly vital in a nation in which, like the United States, so many of the teachers remain in service for only a few years.*¹⁶

At least two and, if possible, three hours a week for two terms, i. e., 4 or 6 semester hours, should be devoted to the methods work. The class should be so small as to make possible an informal method of procedure and opportunity for intimate discussions and much individual attention. The maximum enrollment should be about fifteen in number, while on the other hand there should be a minimum limit, say, of about 5, in order to insure the interchange of varying viewpoints and experiences. The teacher should be one who has had at least several years' practical experience in teaching social studies in the grades or secondary schools (preferably the latter), and be one who is maintaining such contacts with these schools as are consistent with his university position. In addition to this he should have received professional training both in education and in one or more of the social studies. This dual training is urged in order to insure an understanding of and a

sympathetic attitude towards education as a profession (an attitude still sometimes lacking in such teachers), as well as a scholarly knowledge of the social studies themselves. *In a word, the methods teacher must be possessed of an enthusiasm for the educational sciences as well as for the social sciences.*

The class in methods will, when meeting as such, give the greater part of its time to informal discussions based upon readings, observation work, or practice teaching. A text may be used; the best for the more theoretical phase of the work is that by Professor Johnson, while Tyron's is preferable for the technique of teaching. The reading done in professional periodicals will, in many ways, however, be more valuable than that done in any text. It is especially important that the students not only acquire information in such reading, but that they should acquire at the same time the *habit* of reading the current numbers of such journals. Notable among these, of course, is *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, the organ of the National Council for the Social Studies, which is probably of greater direct value to the teacher of those subjects than are all the other professional periodicals combined. *The methods course that fixes in the students the habit of reading this one periodical has done much in this alone to make of that student a truly progressive teacher.*

The content of the methods course should be of both a theoretical and a practical character. The title of "Principles and Methods" would indeed be more descriptive of the field it should cover than the limited title of "Methods" alone. A preliminary discussion of the nature of the social studies, considered both separately and as a group, is essential; and, theoretical as this may seem, it has an ultimately practical significance—as has all theory worth the stating. (The history teacher, *e. g.*, who is so ignorant of the theory of his subject as not to know the significance of the phrase "economic interpretation," can hardly be a broad-minded and critical teacher in practice.) This discussion of the nature of the social studies should include, as far as time permits, a brief discussion of the history of the respective studies. The reason for this is the same as that urged by so many historians for teaching history in general (but so often not applied by them to "history" as a subject), *i. e.*, that a knowledge of the past of any subject is essential to an understanding of its present.

These preliminary discussions being completed,¹⁷ the remainder of the content of the methods course can be organized about the simple interrogations: "Why?", "What?", and "How?" In other words, the greater part of the remaining time will be devoted to the questions, (1) "*Why* should these studies be taught?"—the problem of Aims and Values; (2) "*What* materials selected from them should be taught in the several grades?"—*i. e.*, the problems of planning and grading the curriculum; and (3) "*How* should the curriculum so chosen be taught?"—the problem of "methods" in the narrower sense of that term. The first two are more or less theoretical in

character, the last is a matter of practical technique. Methods courses are apt to emphasize one of these two phases, the theoretical or the practical, at the expense of the other; but the ideal course, as was noted above, should aim at a fair balance between the two.¹⁸ This balance, however, itself depends upon a factor not yet mentioned, namely, the character of the personnel of the class.

If the class be what can be termed a normal one, *i. e.*, one composed of undergraduates, the practical side of the work should be emphasized. These novices will greatly need a knowledge of technique, from the most general methods of class procedure down to the merest device that may "come in handy" with that awesome thing, their first class. Moreover, as noted above, they are psychologically incapable of appreciating more than a minimized and simplified discussion of theory. With such a class the time devoted to technique should be about twice that given to theory. If, however, as is sometimes the case, the class is largely made up of teachers having had several years' experience, at least half the time can be profitably given to the theoretical material. The experienced teachers, at least those who are blessed with average intelligence and a serious regard for their work, are in a position to take an interest in the theory of it all. Even they, of course, will find suggestive and stimulating a rediscussion of technique, in the light of their common experience and of the latest developments in this field.¹⁹ Because of this difference in the needs and interests of experienced and unexperienced students it is in a measure unfortunate to associate them together in the same methods class. If the numbers of each group justify it, separate courses for each should be organized. The distinction sometimes made between graduates and undergraduates has little significance here, it is this difference between the experienced and inexperienced which should serve as the criterion for differentiating the personnel of the methods classes. When circumstances prevent differentiation along this line (as when a few school teachers register in an afternoon class in a school of education) some common sense compromise between the needs of the two groups must be adopted.

The methods class will find it profitable to observe, as a class, special methods being used in the local schools. Trips made for this purpose will be helpful in illustrating topics under discussion in the class. Such observation work, however, is to be kept distinct from any regular observation training given the individual students.

The several phases of the content of the methods training—the *why*, the *what*, and the *how* of it—having now been considered, it is important to note further the nature of the content which is to be so ordered. The phrase used so constantly, namely, the "social studies," implies definitely that each of the more important of these²⁰ must be considered in all of the three phases noted. In the first place, *e. g.*, it must be shown why history should be taught, why the several types of civics should be taught, why

"problems of democracy" should be taught, and "why" the social studies as a whole. So, too, should the planning and grading of each of these studies be considered, when that phase of the whole subject is presented. Or, again, when the technique of teaching is in order the discussion should include reference to any differences in methods indicated by differences in the several social studies.

This necessity for considering several subjects, instead of only the one (history) as heretofore, is now being urged by some as sufficient reason for offering several separate courses on the methods of teaching the several studies. The logic of this claim would seem clear enough, but in practice it has usually been a rationalization of a process already under way, and begun in the first instance as a result of circumstances rather than of reasoning. The development of separate courses in methods for history, civics, economics, and the social studies in general has largely been the result of the educational conservatism of certain historians. Such men, when in charge of the methods course in history—which until a few years ago offered the only work of this type—failed to liberalize that course with material from the other studies when these latter began to invade the high school curriculum. In other words, they continued to train exclusively in a subject which was no longer exclusively taught. Under these circumstances it was inevitable that economists, political scientists, and educators should begin to wax restive and to think of methods courses of their own. Thought in some cases led to action, and a number of competing and overlapping courses began to appear in the same institutions. Today, *e. g.*, we have one large university (and it is not exceptional in this) offering courses in (1) Methods of Teaching History, (2) Methods of Teaching Civics, and (3) Methods of Teaching the Social Studies.

It is also significant, in this case, that the first is given in the department of history (in the college of arts), the second in the department of economics (in the college of commerce), and the third in the school of education. In a word the duplication in methods courses has complicated the interesting and delicate administrative problem as to where such courses should be located.

In general this differentiation of methods work along the lines of the several social studies is not desirable. In the first place it should not be permitted unless the prospective teacher is required to take *each* such course offered (as he probably must later teach *each* subject concerned), and there is hardly room in the already overcrowded curriculum for several of these courses. In the second place, there is hardly sufficient difference obtaining between the technique of teaching the different social studies as to justify restatements of the whole matter of technique as each subject is considered. This would probably mean just such duplication of content as other courses in education have been accused of at times. The simplest solution of the whole matter is probably to liberalize the already existing course in

the methods of teaching history, and, if this liberalization adds new burdens, meeting them by adding an hour's time per week to the course.

If this is not expedient or practical, however, a new course in "methods of the social studies" must be organized. In any case the greatest attention must be paid to history, as the bulk of the secondary school social studies curriculum is still composed of that subject. The administrative problem of the departmental location of the methods course will meantime perhaps best be solved by considering local circumstances. Tradition and the bulk of the content seem to favor the history department of the arts college, while the logic of the situation would indicate the school of education as its proper habitat. The really important thing is that the course relate to *all* the studies, and that the teacher possess the *dual* training and enthusiasms noted above. If such a man can best be found in the department of economics, or in the department of sociology, it might just as well be given in one of these as in the other two mentioned. Or if one man in the history department knows the history teaching field, and a man in the political science department knows the civics teaching field, these twain may profitably combine in the conducting of the methods work. In such a case either of their respective departments may formally offer the course.²¹ It is indeed obvious enough that this work falls in a border field between several of the college departments, and for this very reason requires an unusual degree of toleration and co-operation between them. Whenever possible the teacher or teachers selected to guide the course should be approved by all the departments concerned.²² If co-operation can unfortunately not be secured, however, it must be remembered that in the last analysis the methods training lies closer to the field of education than to any other; and for this reason the school of education should possess the privilege, under such circumstances, of planning its own course and naming its own teacher. Should the school of education determine at its own discretion, however, that such unfortunate and arbitrary action were necessary, it should at least be required by the university authorities to observe certain regulations in the interests of the social sciences concerned. It should be obligatory, *e. g.*, to choose as the instructor one who had taken a certain specified amount of approved graduate training in one or more of the social studies as well as in education.

The general subject of the methods course should not be dismissed without emphasizing the situation already suggested, namely, that the prevailing tendency in this field is to divide the old unified course. This division is being urged along a number of different lines, some of which have been noted, and others of which may be added here. It is urged (1) that separate courses be given for the separate studies, (2) for the different classes of students, (3) for the practical content and for the theoretical content, and (4) for students planning to teach in the junior high schools and those interested in the senior high

schools. The first two criteria for differentiation have already been discussed, the second being approved and the first disapproved. The third, *i. e.*, differences existing between the several phases of the content considered, is not often suggested. It may occasionally be wise to have a man in one of the social science departments give a course in the more theoretical material, and a man of wide experience in public school work give the work in technique of teaching and direct the practice teaching. This arrangement would naturally be indicated when no one man could be found who was properly qualified in both phases of the content. It would usually amount, however, to an arrangement already noted as being advisable under certain circumstances, *i. e.*, the co-operation of two men in giving what was substantially the one course. In other words the inability to find one man qualified to handle this many-sided work should not be used as a reason for multiplying courses. To put it somewhat cryptically, it were better that the class have one course than that the faculty members should have several.

The fourth criterion suggested for differentiation is more interesting. It is now held by some that those teaching, or planning to teach in the junior high schools, be enrolled in one course, and those interested in the senior high schools in another.²³ This view would doubtless receive considerable support from the senior high school teachers, who usually wish to emphasize the distinctions between the two types of schools; while the junior high school teachers, who usually wish to minimize these distinctions, would be apt to frown upon such a separation, or at least to consider it unnecessary. In general this would seem to be another line of separation which is usually inadvisable at the present time. It is improbable that such a difference exists in the methods of teaching in the two types of schools, as would justify the inclusion of a distinct university course in the methods of teaching in the junior high schools. It is also true, unfortunate as it may be, that undergraduates in schools of education usually prefer to teach in the senior or four-year high schools, and would not care to take a junior high methods course were it given. Teachers already in service in such schools might wish to do so, and if the methods and other phases of the work of the junior high become sufficiently distinct from the other school, it may be advisable gradually to introduce junior high methods courses for teachers already in the service.²⁴ Even in such cases, the giving of separate courses for the different types of school would probably mean duplication of content, just as different courses for different studies mean duplication of content. In view of this, and the other facts just considered, it were well to lay down the general rule that the tendency to divide the methods course should be resisted until such time, and in such cases, as the necessity for division can be clearly demonstrated. *Unitarianism is recommended as the proper professional creed for those who have faith in methods training.*

So much for the methods course. The next phases of professional training to be considered are those of observation work and practice teaching. The ideal arrangement of practice and observation work rather obviously calls for a practice high school, so associated with the school of education as to make possible close and systematic correlation between this work and the specific methods training. Such a practice school, however, although long the rule with good normal schools and teachers' colleges,²⁵ is still a rarity with collegiate schools of education. Every effort, of course, should be made to secure such a school, but in the meantime the practical thing to do is usually to decide upon the best substitute. This is generally found in some system of co-operation with the local public schools, in return for which co-operation the college may offer such special favors as scholarships, lectures, the use of its plant for certain occasions, etc., and indirectly a supply of presumably well-trained secondary school teachers. Under these, and even less favorable circumstances, the public schools are usually glad to co-operate, although such assistance was considered impossible fifteen years ago.²⁶

There is a wide variation in the character of the practice teaching and observation now maintained by the different universities.²⁷ Some have none of it, while at least one, the University of Cincinnati, devotes what amounts to almost an entire graduate year to it. Some have practice schools, as at Columbia and Chicago;²⁸ others, as Brown, Pennsylvania, and Ohio State, depend upon the local public schools.²⁹ Usually the work is administered by the education faculty, but in some cases by the history department, or by the department concerned in the practice high school.³⁰ Some combine observation and practice work in one course, if it can be called such; others have distinct courses. The number of observation and teaching hours required in "practice teaching" varies from about 50 to 200; *i. e.*, from what amounts to 3 semester hours, or 5 quarter hours, to as much as 13 semester or 20 quarter hours.³¹ The average requirement, however, is probably close to the minimum here given, since the high maximum is made possible only by the use of a fifth year, which is unusual.

The system used by the University of Cincinnati has much to recommend it, since by postponing the practice teaching to a fifth year, a sort of educational internship is developed. This permits a longer practice teaching schedule than would otherwise be possible, and at the same time makes room for other needed courses in the crowded fourth year. The fifth year practice work is done in the city schools, which pay the "cadets" one-half the regular salary, and also reward the training teachers to whom the cadets are assigned. The plan really provides for the conduct of the young teacher's first year in the public schools under the joint critical direction of the public school authorities and the school of education. It is in some ways superior even to a prac-

tice high school arrangement, since it allows the student teacher to secure his training under conditions more typical of those he must later meet in the service.³²

In general, in those cases in which the Cincinnati plan cannot be developed, it is fair to say that practice and observation work should be under the direction of the education faculty; and that the practice teaching in the fourth year should provide for at least 50 actual observation and teaching hours, i. e., for 3 semester or 5 quarter hours. More than this can hardly be demanded, though it is certainly needed, since analysis has shown that when well done an hour of actual practice teaching involves in one way or another as much as four or five additional hours of the student's time.³³ This is about double that demanded by an hour of college class work, which, by the way, usually receives the same credit recognition. It need hardly be stated that actual practice teaching does not begin with the student's first appearance in the school room, but is developed gradually through such stages as mere observation, marking papers, assisting special students, taking short lessons under the training teacher's guidance, and so on to the complete control of the class. The writer feels strongly on this point for, if a personal illusion be allowed, he was himself forced to take entire responsibility for a restless 6th grade on the very first day he had ever taught in his life. There is nothing wrong with this "sink or swim" method in beginning the student's teaching except that it is very likely to sink him.

Little need be said here concerning the details of administration involved in the direction of the observation and practice training, since these do not differ materially for students majoring in the different fields. The direction of these phases of training is discussed in the general literature on the subject. Certain special problems, however, are to be noted, chief of which are (1) the relation of the methods course teacher to the practice and observation work, (2) the type of teaching to be observed, and (3) the correlation of this work with the professional courses given in the university.

While the general direction of the work in the local schools quite naturally should be in the hands of the dean or of some other professor in the school of education, the teacher of the special methods course should establish contacts with the local teachers of the social studies, in whose classes the students observe or teach, and with these practice teachers themselves. If he knows the local teachers (as he should) he may be able to suggest to the dean those to be selected to assist in the work. This done he may (1) suggest to the local teachers ways in which they can best help the novices (2) receive reports upon the work which the latter perform and (3) consult with them so far as time permits. It is axiomatic, e. g., that the students should be told just what to look for in their observation work, asked to report upon it, and cautioned concerning the necessity for tact in making comments and criticisms. In

a word, the methods teacher should serve as *liaison* officer between the work in the local schools and in the school of education itself. Incidentally this duty affords the methods teacher just that opportunity for keeping in touch with the secondary schools which he needs for the welfare of his own special work. The only question is, can this already overworked man find time for such extra-mural activities? If he can find the time it were better, both for his own work and for that of his students, to devote it to this purpose.

This contact which the methods teacher establishes with the practice teaching is especially valuable because it seems to offer the only obvious solution of one of the most perplexing problems which faces the training system. How can a close connection be established in the student's mind between the theory of the methods course and the practice of the class room? If there is no transfer from one to the other the methods course has failed to achieve its purpose, and yet it is just this connection which it is usually so difficult to make. Many graduates of schools of education, if they are candid with themselves, will admit that they "didn't get much" in the methods (or other education) courses that they "could use" in their first teaching years. The methods teacher offers the chief hope in this situation, for if one and the same man first gives the methods course and then oversees the practice teaching, he, if anyone, should be able to correlate the two. In an effort to insure this correlation some schools, e. g., the University of Pittsburg, have the methods class given by the critic teacher of the practice high school.³⁴ If such an instructor is as well qualified as any of the university teachers to give this course, his connection with the practice school would certainly be a distinct advantage in this connection. It makes no essential difference, however, whether a university man walks over to the high school to oversee the practice work, or whether a high school critic teacher walks over to the university to give the methods course—it is the walking back and forth, and the real correlation between theory and practice which this signifies, which is so essential. The methods teacher should be, among many other things, a philosopher of the peripatetic school.

In suggesting which local teachers may be requested to co-operate in the practice work, the methods man will usually select the ablest and most progressive ones available. This is naturally the rule in selecting all training teachers. It may be well, however, to arrange to have the students occasionally observe the work of an average, mediocre, or even poor teacher. This has the possible value of displaying how things should *not* be done, and also of supplying an antidote to that sense of discouragement which is occasionally the result of the students observing naught but perfection. The observation of poor teaching requires for obvious reasons, however, unusual care on the part of those directing the training work.

The correlation of the school training with the

professional courses is a rather nice problem which has not always received the consideration it deserves. It is partly a matter of sequence. The courses in the Principles of Education and the Secondary School should precede observation work, for the simple reason that the students should know something of the nature of a secondary school and its problems before they observe in one. On the other hand the observation of social studies teaching may well precede the special methods course, or at least parallel it, in order that the students may at least know what an actual class looks like before they discuss specific methods relating to it. Finally, the methods course should in turn precede the practice teaching, in order that the practice teachers may benefit by the study of technique usually made in that course.³⁵

If by any chance no arrangements can be made for co-operation with the public schools, the methods teacher may gain some of the values of practice teaching by permitting his students to practice upon themselves. This old practice may be followed occasionally in any case.³⁶ Yet the situation thus created is at best an artificial one, and is to be defended as something better than nothing rather than as anything very meritorious in itself.

Just as the methods teacher should establish contacts with the public schools which offer to assist in the training activities, so should he seek to establish contacts with the public or other schools which are looking for new teachers. If he has come to know the local schools he may return some of their favors by recommending to them well qualified students. Of course an agency may do this, but the agency will not always be so interested in the other side of the story, *i. e.*, in recommending to students schools well qualified to reward their services. This the methods teacher should be glad to do for his own students, acting as their professional confidant in such matters as they may see fit to refer to him. In a word, he can report to the schools the quality of the applicants and to the applicants the quality of the schools. If the university conducts a placement bureau he may be of service to it and it to him.

Enough has been said by this time to indicate that the methods teacher must function as the central figure in the training of students planning to teach in his particular field. He must be their chief guide and mentor, dealing directly with them in the manner described, and indirectly in all the ways which that personal interest he ought to have in them may direct. This implies that he must be a teacher who, besides possessing the various qualifications noted in another connection, is able to give the greater part of his time and energy to the functions herein described. Any such teacher who guides his students in (1) content courses, (2) the special methods course, (3) observation and practice teaching, and (4) the securing of positions, may well feel that he has his hands full with such a schedule. Hence the tendency will doubtless be for such teachers to divorce themselves from other professional work,

and for progressive schools to appoint them for this work alone.

If there is any time remaining to the methods teacher after the work noted is completed, it may well be devoted to two types of advanced work relating to his field. First, he may offer a seminar to graduate students interested in the general field of education in the social studies. There are many nice problems to be investigated here, if the requisite materials be available. Such a seminar might well co-operate with other educational seminars which happen to exist in the same institution, or might even offer valuable services to the National Council for the Social Studies, or to any special studies or surveys being made in the social studies field.

Second, he may offer an "advanced" (not necessarily a "graduate") course in the pedagogy of the social studies for experienced teachers. This would be composed of a discussion group (as distinct from the research group in the seminar) of teachers who wish to re-discuss the problems of their field in the light of their experience. Such a course should be of the greatest value, for (1) the experienced teachers may profit by far more comprehensive discussions than are intelligible to the beginners, and (2) these discussions should be the occasion of their receiving not only new ideas but a renewed interest and inspiration. All teachers who have been about "five years out" from the training school should be urged to take such an advanced course. It would offer them in systematic form the same values which are now received in a rather disjointed and incomplete manner in the local "institutes" or other group meetings of a professional character. The summer session is obviously indicated as the best time in which to offer such a course.

This completes the description of the several phases of the training work noted at the outset. So far as possible all details have been omitted, but those included would seem to be justified by the importance of the entire subject. In conclusion one might repeat Professor Dawson's suggestion that teacher training in the social studies possesses not only the usual obvious and essential merits of all training work, but has especial importance for these particular subjects. It happens that it is peculiarly difficult to test for any values accomplished in the teaching of the social studies, and in this absence of any certain demonstration of accomplishment, perhaps the best guaranty we can have that values are secured is to be had in a certainty that our teachers are well trained to achieve their purposes. Viewed in this light the training of teachers of the social studies becomes a doubly significant function. It merits much more careful consideration and study than this survey has involved, but it is hoped that the suggestions here given will invite thought, if not commendation.

¹ By "academic" is here meant the ordinary "liberal arts" training. Its value for the prospective teacher is simply assumed here, not from a desire to be dogmatic, but because this is a common assumption and it is impossible here to

examine it critically. See for the views of college authorities concerning the value of general work F. J. Kelley, *The American Arts College*, pp. 19, 20.

²The reverse situation is true in some of the states of the Middle West. See, e. g., J. O. Frank, "The Preparation of High School Teachers in Wisconsin Normal Schools," *School Review*, XXXI, 16-27 (January, 1923).

³The Curtis School of Music, of Philadelphia, regretting the "narrowing influence" of such early professional specialization, is conducting an interesting experiment in the form of an "academic department." This offers work of a secondary or collegiate character (conducted by professors from nearby universities) to the students, during such hours as they can occasionally spare from technical study. See the first catalogue of the Institute, for 1924-25, pp. 25-27; also catalogue for 1925-26, pp. 27-31.

⁴For this view, see D. Snedden, "Can Sociology Produce New Syntheses of Educational Theory?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, X, 180, ff (March, 1924).

⁵This difference is sometimes urged as a reason for considering the teachers' college the more efficient type of training institution. See R. A. Kent, "University Preparation of Teachers of High Schools," *School Review*, XXVII, 172-185 (March, 1919); R. S. Newcomb, "The Present Status of the Training of High School Teachers in Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges," *ibid.*, XXXI, 380-387 (May, 1923).

⁶Meeting of February, 1925. See THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XVI, 143-144 (April, 1925). The preparation of this ratio or "standard" was largely the work of Miss Frances Morehouse, of Teachers' College, Columbia University.

⁷For the prevailing type of criticism of the History of Education, see, e. g., C. H. Judd, "What Should Be the Minimum Essentials of a Four-Year Curricula for Teachers' Colleges," *School and Society*, XVIII, 61-67 (July, 1923).

⁸As a matter of fact the argument for the History of Education is at least in part identical with that for history in general. See Henry Neumann, "Should the History of Education Be Scrapped?" *Educational Review*, LXVII, 16-19 (1924).

⁹F. M. Garver, "The Function of University Schools of Education in the Distribution of Responsibilities for the Training of Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XI, 42-51 (January, 1925). A chart of subjects offered as professional courses in education is given on p. 45. See also, in this connection, R. S. Newcomb, *op. cit.*, 380-387.

¹⁰This means a minimum of 18 hours in history. The Cincinnati standard suggests a minimum of only 6 hours in this subject and evidently contemplates the possibility of majoring in one of "the other social studies."

¹¹For such early recognition, see, e. g., H. W. Edwards, "Preparation of the High School History Teacher," THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, II, 7 (1910).

¹²Data demonstrating this neglect were presented by Prof. P. W. Hutson to the Cincinnati meeting mentioned above; see THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XVI, 143-144. See also Edgar Dawson, "Preparation of Teachers of the Social Studies for the Secondary Schools," THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XIII, 159-162 (May, 1922).

¹³For this whole subject, see the recent work by E. D. Randolph, *The Professional Treatment of Subject-Matter* (Warwick and York, Baltimore, 1924).

¹⁴There are some observations on such correlation in Miss Ella Lonn's article, "A Course in Methods of Teaching the Social Studies in the High School," THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XV, 387 ff.

¹⁵Statement by F. L. Paxson, Chairman, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, IV, 171.

¹⁶The "average" elementary teacher, e. g., does not remain in the service more than four years. See W. C. Bagley, et al., "The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools," *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin No. 14*, p. 143.

¹⁷The theoretical phase of this work may, of course, be made to follow, rather than to precede, the practical. This would perhaps avoid the danger common to all courses in education, i. e., work that seems entirely theoretical may seem unreal and uninteresting to the students.

¹⁸A historian giving the course, if he has never taught in the schools, is apt to overemphasize theory; while a practical public school man, if he has not done advanced work in the social sciences, is apt to overemphasize technique.

¹⁹The methods course in the university is sometimes criticized even by mature teachers as being "too theoretical." See D. A. Worcester, "Teachers' Problems and Courses in Educational Psychology," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XI, 550-555 (November, 1925).

²⁰I. e., history, government, economics, sociology, and the composite courses which combine the content of these several subjects in varying proportions.

²¹For varying departmental locations of the methods course, in actual practice in American universities today, see Edgar Dawson, "Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of the Social Studies," THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XIII, 165 (May, 1922).

²²Such a system of mutual approval of instructors, and of general co-operation between the education and arts departments concerned, already obtains in some universities. See, e. g., A. K. Mead, "Co-operation of Academic and Professional Departments at Ohio Wesleyan University," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XI, 333-337 (May, 1925).

²³This view is well presented by W. M. Proctor, "The Training of Teachers for the Junior High School," *ibid.*, XI, 13-17 (January, 1925).

²⁴What one writer terms "a significant beginning" has already been made in this direction. He also calls attention to the fact that changes in other phases of the whole training curriculum may have to be made if specific preparation of junior high school teachers is to be maintained; W. H. Gaumnitz, "Provisions Made by Colleges and Normal Schools to Give a Special Type of Training to Teachers of Junior High Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XI, 556-571 (November, 1925).

²⁵About 74 per cent. of the 3 and 4-year teachers' colleges possessed, in 1923, practice high schools; Newcomb, *op. cit.*, 380-387.

²⁶M. M. Trenholme, "Observation Work and Practice Teaching," *The History Teacher's Magazine*, I, 222 (1910).

²⁷An outline of the different systems now used is given by A. L. Hall-Quest, "The Cincinnati Plan of Teacher Training," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, X, 129-130 (March, 1924).

²⁸For descriptions of practice systems using practice high schools, see W. C. Reavis, "The Administration of Practice Teaching in the University of Chicago High School," *ibid.*, X, 281-286 (May, 1924); E. R. Breslich, "The Supervision and Administration of Practice Teaching" (also at Chicago), *ibid.*, XI, 1-12 (January, 1925).

²⁹For practice systems dependent upon the co-operation of the public schools, see W. D. Armentraut, "Making Observation Effective for Teachers in Training," *ibid.*, X, 287-293 (May, 1924); W. A. Cook, "Introducing the Student to Practice Teaching," *ibid.*, 294-302; J. W. Heckert, "Extra-Mural Practice Teaching in Miami University," *ibid.*, 303-309.

³⁰Edgar Dawson, "Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of the Social Studies," THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XIII, 158-170, gives some figures relative to the number of universities using these several methods.

³¹Pennsylvania and Ohio State, e. g., require about 45-50 hours, while Cincinnati requires 200 in the fifth year.

³²See, for a description of this unusual fifth-year arrangement, Hall-Quest, *op. cit.*, 133 ff.

³³J. W. Graves, "The Amount of Time Student-Teachers Spend in Practice in Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XI, 417-420 (September, 1925),

³⁴ D. Wapples and E. Sauvain, "The Pittsburgh Plan of High School Practice Teaching," *ibid.*, X, 354-367 (September, 1924).

³⁵ It is now possible to sum up the suggestions made with regard to the training curriculum under discussion. The sequence and hour requirements would appear about as follows (the rest of the curriculum is added in order to show the place of the professional curriculum in the whole):

Subjects	Semester Hours	Year	Term
I. Professional Subjects:			
Principles of Education...	3	2	1
History of Education....	3	2	1
Educational Psychology...	3	2	2
The Secondary School ...	4	3	1 (or 1 & 2)
Special Methods	4 (or 6)	3	1 & 2
Observation Work	3	3	1 or 2
Practice Teaching	3	4	1 or 2
Total	23	(or 25)	
II. Orientation Subjects:			
History:			
Intensive Courses	9		
Content Courses	9		
Economics	6		
Government	6		
Sociology	3		
Content Course in "Problems of Democracy" ...	3		
Total	36		
III. Natural Sciences:			
Biology	6		
General Psychology	6		
Physiology and Personal Hygiene	3		
Total	18		
IV. Art and Literature:			
English Composition	6		
History of English Literature	6		
History of American Literature	3		
History of English Language	3		
History of Architecture, or History of Painting and Sculpture, or	3		
History of Music	3		
Total	21		
V. Foreign Languages:			
German	12		
or			
French			
or			
Spanish			
Total	12		
VI. Free Electives	12		
Grand Total	122	(or 124)	

It is probable, of course, that no training curriculum offered today can pretend to any finality, since our knowledge of just what abilities a teacher should possess is still too limited. Until we know just what qualities a teacher needs we can hardly say just what training will best develop those qualities. Some work on "job analysis" has already been attempted, and at the present time an "analysis of the traits and duties of teachers," with "a view to building up a training program," is being financed by the Commonwealth Fund. For other curricula which have been suggested see, e. g., the *Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, issued by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York, 1917).

³⁶ This practice was common in normal schools in the Civil War period, and doubtless before this; Bagley, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

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A Critical Study of the Results of the Barr's Diagnostic Tests in American History

HERMAN M. WESSEL, HEAD SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT, CHELTENHAM HIGH SCHOOL, ELKINS PARK, PA.

Diagnostic tests in American history are in their embryonic stage. A survey of educational literature reveals many references to tests of this character, but little discussion of them. Of the diagnostic tests in American history that have been published, that devised by A. S. Barr, of University of Wisconsin, is one that is quite generally used. The Barr's Diagnostic Tests in American history are a composite of five separate tests, "each designed to measure an important process in the study of American history." These processes are, respectively, comprehension, chronological judgment, historical evidence, evaluation of facts, and causal relationships.

In the spring of 1925, series 2A of the Barr Tests was given to the junior class of the Cheltenham High School. This group had practically completed the year's work in American history. As far as the demands of the tests are concerned, the pupils had received instruction in those parts of American history which the tests cover.

I.

A statistical analysis of the results of 34 of these tests permits the following conclusions:

First, the median of the Cheltenham group in each of the Barr tests is higher than the standard median. In "chronological judgment," the Cheltenham median showed a gain of 14 per cent., which is the lowest gain of all. In "comprehension," the gain was 60 per cent., the highest gain of all. Comprehension may be a matter which is dependent upon the individual, rather than upon the instruction in American history. This is quite likely to be the case in the Barr test, for this test measures the ability of the pupil to read passages silently, and then to answer questions concerning that which he has read. Moreover, he is permitted to reread the passage, if he finds the need for that, in answering the questions. Consequently, this large gain cannot be recorded entirely as an achievement in historical comprehension, resulting from the year's study of the subject. It is undoubtedly an indication to the teacher that for many of the pupils, little attention is needed in developing this particular sort of ability. Accordingly, the teacher's time in the history classroom may be wholly devoted to the development of other abilities.

Second, the abilities of the pupils are not equal in all the five processes of the Barr tests. The most striking case was that of a pupil who ranked thirty-fourth in the test in chronological judgment and first in the test in historical evidence. On the basis of the Terman Tests for Mental Ability, this person ranked fourth in the group. Therefore, in his case, there is a closer relationship between his intelligence and his ability to select historical evidence than between his intelligence and his achievement in memorizing dates and time-relationships. It is incumbent

upon the teacher, in this particular case, to insist that this pupil should learn some of the more significant time-relationships in his American history.

Third, the correlation between teachers' marks, as revealed by the pupils' grades, and the results of each of the five tests show a much too low evaluation of the importance of cause and effect relationships. The highest correlations were between teachers' marks and comprehension, and between teachers' marks and chronological judgment. The lowest was between teachers' marks and causal relationships. In the first of the highest correlations, might not one be led to suspect that too strong an emphasis was placed upon the pupils' ability to achieve the historical facts from the printed page, rather than an adequate ability to make use of those facts? The very low correlation between the marks and causal relationships suggests the need for a change in the methods of teaching and testing, which will raise the importance of this causal-relationship-process throughout the study of history.

II.

It is desirable to point out the nature of the errors which the pupils made in these tests. In the comprehension test, the errors are those commonly connected with silent reading, and they show inability to grasp content from a printed page. While the errors of this kind were few, nevertheless in extreme cases they show certain individual weaknesses. But the most common error in this test was in vocabulary. A large number of pupils were unable to distinguish properly the meanings of certain pairs of words, such as *territory* and *state*, *unconstitutional* and *undemocratic*, *decision* and *judgment*, *chattels* and *property*, *without due process of law* and *without legislation*. Errors of this type indicate to the teacher the necessity of careful teaching in the use of words that are found in historical writing, and should remind the teacher of the necessity of occasional drills and tests in order to assure himself that the pupils understand some of the finer distinctions that words make in an intelligent reading and study of history.

In the test in chronology, two general situations were revealed. Wherever this test called for a discrimination of historical facts which occurred in different epochs of our history, there were comparatively few errors. Practically all the pupils were able to assign Patrick Henry, Robert Lee, John Cabot, James Monroe, and Roger Williams into their proper chronological niches, when compared one with another.

Yet an extreme instance showed a lack of ability to award to the purchase of Louisiana, the battle of Saratoga, Benjamin Franklin, and Daniel Webster their proper places in the nation's chronology. The most common errors occurred when the pupils were

asked to arrange chronologically events that had taken place at approximately the same time. For example, it was difficult for many of the pupils to arrange in proper sequence the battles of Yorktown, Lexington, Bunker Hill, Burgoyne's campaign, and the Declaration of Independence. Errors of this type may or may not demand correction, as the individual teacher deems desirable. There are some who feel that exact chronology is very important in the teaching of history, while others may be content to have a class that can judge between the larger periods in American history.

The test in historical evidence revealed as the pupils' most common error the inability to judge the value of source material. Only two out of thirty-four pupils did this correctly. Failure of this sort will probably indicate to the teacher the need for a thorough discussion of historical reference reading. Perhaps it might be better to do less reading in reference books in quantity, but to do more thoroughly and more critically that which is assigned. This presupposes, of course, that pupils in our high schools should be able to judge rather well historical evidence. The selection of evidence as related to correct thinking is important in all subjects; and we ought probably recognize that it is an aim in our history classes, even though we may feel at times that it is difficult to attain.

The test in the evaluating of facts presented no serious errors in any large numbers. The errors that were made were largely confined to that section of the test which dealt with the evaluation of the economic events in our history. Events which affected the political development of the country, the territorial growth of the nation, the foreign policy, the influence of great leaders, the slavery question,—all were judged quite correctly. But it was more difficult for many pupils to see that the origin and growth of labor unions was of more importance in the economic history of the country than railroad strikes, tariff laws, and panics. This common error should make the teacher see the importance of giving attention to the economic factors in our nation's development just as fully as giving attention to the political, territorial, and biographical factors.

The last test, that of causal relationship, showed that the pupils could see such relationships when the causes and effects were directly connected. For example, there was little difficulty in assigning to the sinking of the Maine, the result of the Spanish-American War; to the Dred Scott decision, the result of the extension of the abolition sentiment; to the growth of industrial combinations, the result of the anti-trust laws; and so on. Every one could see that the invention of the cotton gin was a direct cause of the extension of cotton culture, but only a few were able to see that it was also indirectly a cause of such historical events as the Lincoln-Douglas debates and the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Likewise, only a few could show that the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887, the Sherman Anti-Trust Law of 1890, and the growth of industrial combinations had cause and effect relationship with each other.

III.

In conclusion, what can one say about the diagnostic test in general? A minor criticism is that of the method of scoring which the author has developed. It is no uncommon thing to find in any one of the five tests a group of fractional numbers with different fractional denominators, which must be added to secure the score for the whole test. There are thirds, and fifths, and sevenths, and ninths all to be added.

A more serious criticism is that the test is more of a post-mortem examination than a diagnostic test. The test deals with so many topics in history that it is practically impossible to give the test to the pupils before they have completed the year's work. As a consequence, it is quite likely that the teacher finds it impossible to apply any remedial measures to the group that has been tested. But this does not indicate that the test is of little value to the teacher. Its value is great in that it diagnoses the teaching fully as much as it does the pupil's achievement. Assuming that these five fundamental processes are processes which ought to be developed in a study of American history, the teacher can surely regard with thought and analysis the results of the tests. He may find that his emphasis has been too much on chronology, and too little on cause and effect relationships. Accordingly, he can set out and plan changes in his teaching which shall bring about a better condition with his next class. Better than that, it should lead the resourceful teacher to devise for himself a series of home-made diagnostic tests covering the separate periods in American history, and emphasizing those things which he intends that his teaching shall "put across."

Finally, it is a question whether diagnostic tests, such as Barr's, tell us all that we desire to know about the pupils who have been studying history. Is the acquisition of such processes, as this test measures, all that we want our pupils in history to achieve? Should not the teaching of history result in the development of attitudes of mind, which will enable the youthful citizen to regard more intelligently the historical development of our country? Should he not be able, after his year's work in American history, to regard our contemporary national problems in the light of their historical significance? Should he not be taught to observe similarities between our older national problems and those that confront us today with a view to judging more adequately the effectiveness of the proposed solutions to them? Attitudes of mind, abstract aims and goals, such as questions of this sort call forth, are by their very nature difficult to measure and to diagnose by a forty-minute test of a more or less mechanical nature. Only the intimate discussion in the classroom, characterized by frankness and openness, and extending over the entire year, can give the teacher insight into the pupils' developments in this direction. For this reason, it is questioned whether such tests as the Barr test are able to tell us all that we want to know; and accordingly while their utility is great, it is also to some extent limited.

The Significance of American Adhesion to the World Court

An Answer to Professor Dickerson

BY MARGARET WILLIS, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

Professor Dickerson, in the April number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, has performed a real service by beginning to dissipate the heavy cloud of exaggeration which has befogged the discussion of the World Court. No student of contemporary history is likely to quarrel with his thesis that the significance of the Senate's action in ratifying the protocol has been grossly over-estimated. The movement for joining the World Court, like every cause with an altruistic tinge, enlisted the usual army of well-meaning men and women who saw in it the panacea for the ills of the world; it is notorious that democracies still believe in magic. Such backers drive home the old saying that we need protection, not from our enemies, but from our friends. The implication, however, that the friends of the Court are entirely responsible for the misrepresentation is not justified; no other exaggerators could compete with Senators Reed and Borah. The leaders of the pro-Court campaign worked steadily for American entrance, combating on the one hand the demon-haunted visions of the irreconcilables, on the other the rosy-hued dreams of the sentimentalists. There is not a valid point made by Professor Dickerson of which the intelligent supporters of the Court were not at all times aware. Nevertheless they felt, for the reasons given below, that our entrance was worth while.

Each of Professor Dickerson's arguments minimizing the importance of our entry into the World Court merits a brief comment. The first I shall reserve for final consideration. The second, the fact that the Hague Tribunal still remains, is really an argument for the Court. Out of twenty years' experience at the Hague the nations have discovered the limitations of an arbitration tribunal. After the war they were convinced that the future of international law and international justice demanded the creation of a true court with regular judges to handle the small but very important class of justiciable cases. Of course arbitration continues; it is a necessity for certain types of disputes. Arbitration and adjustments out of court are a common feature of our local government, but no one argues that county and state courts are unnecessary.

The first part of his third argument, quoting the "emotional appeals to have the United States represented 'at the council table of the world'" may be dismissed at once; such arguments and appeals did not emanate from the leaders of the movement, but reflect the efforts of its misguided friends. In his next paragraph, however, Professor Dickerson attacks the foundations of democracy. He asserts that American participation, confined merely to the elec-

tion of judges in 1930 "will be of little consequence" and "possibly will not change the results." So argues the slacker citizen who stays away from the polls on election day and abandons our democracy to the boss and the bureaucrat. Surely the fundamental truth of the value and responsibility of every individual vote does not need reassertion in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

The fact that the United States as a member will share in the expenses of the Court comes in for the next critical shaft. Any possible criticism there seems adequately guarded against by the reservations that Congress must appropriate the money. If the expense proves more than we can afford doubtless an economical Congress will find courage to refuse the demands of the Court or scale down the \$35,000 to some figure more in keeping with the wealth of the richest nation in the world.

The last point made by Professor Dickerson is one which Americans are coming slowly and dimly to realize. "The World Court is not the only nor the chief international agency for preventing future wars." The other international agencies which he cites are diplomacy, arbitration, force, and the machinery of the League of Nations. Considering the egregious failures of diplomacy, arbitration, and force in previous times of acute crisis, the list really narrows down to the machinery of the League of Nations as the chief agency in preventing war, if war is to be prevented.

It is somewhat surprising that a nation nourished from its cradle on the doctrine of the separation of the legislative, executive, and judicial functions of government should be so slow to recognize the old principle in a new application. The World Court is the judicial world organization with all the virtues and limitations of a court. It is related to the League in a way roughly approximate to the relation of our Supreme Court to the President and Senate. Since its inception it has been feeling its way slowly and gaining gradually in influence, as our Supreme Court very slowly won grudging recognition in the painful days of its youth. It goes without saying that its field is limited. In all cases not justiciable, and they admittedly are legion, other means of settlement must be used, the ordinary course of diplomacy, or arbitration, or the organized world executive, the League of Nations.

Professor Dickerson's last paragraph I quote in full. (The italics are mine.) "Consequently, no revolutionary changes in any contingency should be expected in the conduct of our foreign relations. Regardless of what happens to our reservations, we have full access to ample means of settling our con-

troversies peaceably in the future, just as we have had in the past. The United States may be slow to make rash promises concerning the course she will take in advance of the appearance of a specific dispute, but it is certain she will use every pacific remedy available when the occasion arises. This has been our course in the past, and we have every reason to believe it will be our course in the future." Every American wants to feel that faith in his country, but the facts, unfortunately, do not warrant such serene certainty. Few historians have the temerity to claim that in 1898 we used "every pacific remedy available"; when Spain conceded everything we asked, popular feeling still demanded war, and war it was. The so-called "Florida Purchase" stands still less the test of careful investigation. We refused Columbia's request to arbitrate the Panama question. How many of us are genuinely proud of the Mexican War? A cynical foreigner, viewing our array of closet skeletons, might conclude that our zeal for arbitration and the use of "every pacific remedy" was in inverse proportion to our chances of winning in case of a war.

Cynicism about America's peaceful intentions is not wholly justified, even by such an array of con-

tradictory instances. Many, and I believe most, Americans are earnestly and heartily in sympathy with peace and international justice. They should realize, however, that other nations will judge of our intentions by our acts. Since 1918 the only friendly gestures we have made toward the world have been at the Washington Conference, where we had an axe to grind, and in joining the World Court. It is unfortunate that so many ungracious reservations detract from our "beau geste," but it still remains the first spontaneous and unselfish move toward co-operation and world peace which we have made during these eight trying years. So, although "we gain access to no machinery for world peace to which we did not already have access before ratification," Professor Dickerson's first point, that is not the heart of the matter. The true significance of American adhesion to the World Court is in the changing attitude which it connotes. The pendulum has reached the limit of its swing toward isolation and has turned back. We shall yet learn that the way to find peace is to look for it, work for it, and plan for it, not simply wish for it, talk about it, and congratulate ourselves on how much we love it.

General Principles Governing the Construction of a Syllabus for High School History in Minnesota

BY D. S. BRAINARD, ST. CLOUD TEACHERS COLLEGE, MINNESOTA

Three years ago the Department of Education of the State of Minnesota appointed a committee to prepare a syllabus in social studies for the high schools of the State, the author of this article being the chairman of the committee. The results of the work of this committee were published recently in the form of Bulletin 3-B, American History, and Bulletin 3-C, Ancient History and Modern History.¹ The outline in ancient history is designed to be used as an elective year course in the ninth grade, while the courses in modern and in American history are designed as constants for the tenth and eleventh grades, respectively.

Realizing the serious shortcomings of these outlines the study was not discontinued with the publication of the bulletins. In particular, endeavor has been made to find the principles which may be used to locate the minimum essential parts of a history syllabus. When located these principles will be applied to the Minnesota syllabus for the purpose of ascertaining:

- (1) The portions which are to be regarded as minimum essentials.
- (2) What matters should be omitted.
- (3) What matters should be added.
- (4) The degree of stress to be laid upon each portion of the syllabus.

In this connection numerous syllabi in social

studies prepared for use in other States were read, their contents tabulated and compared with the content of the Minnesota syllabus. A watch was kept for matters receiving the most stress and an effort made to determine the reasons and principles governing this stress. Notes were taken regarding omissions, repetition, and possible additions to the syllabus. In a similar manner twelve leading secondary textbooks were read and their contents tabulated. The resulting table was then examined and the points of agreement and disagreement between the various syllabi and textbooks noted, with the purpose of determining not only the general principles of exclusion and inclusion needed in a reduction to minimum essentials, but also the nature of those minimum essentials themselves. This determination involved necessarily a large element of personal judgment.

Fourteen principles or methods were discovered which may be used in determining the minimum essential core of the Minnesota syllabus. These principles are as follows:

1. Information which constitutes a distinct contribution to our civilization. Under this classification come inventions and discoveries, as well as the products of authors, architects, and sculptors.
2. Information which is necessary to a proper understanding of the social habits which have come down to us as an inheritance from the past and which

make up so large a part of world civilization and world problems. Societies, religions, and governments are examples.

3. Material which will assist us in understanding the operation of human nature in history. Human nature has not changed with the passage of centuries. Only the environment has been modified. Hence, if the student knows how men have reacted to situations in the past, he will be able to make allowance for similar reactions to analogous situations in the future.

4. Information regarding the folly of the past, regarding great mistakes involving serious consequences, is important. How Athens was brought to ruin by the errors of her citizens is a story containing important lessons for the citizens of the coming age.

5. The subject of orientation also belongs in this list. Information which assists in adjusting and explaining our relationship to institutions and to past ages is important. A knowledge of the past has a stabilizing influence. If we understand the origin of modern institutions we will respect them and love them even though we ask for their modification from time to time.

6. Information which is of permanent value should be considered essential in contrast with matters of merely current interest, but not likely to retain the attention of the world for more than a brief time.

7. The direct line of development of our civilization is essential and should be emphasized. Other regions of the earth should be included only when they are brought upon the stage of world events.

8. A considerable amount of subsidiary material is also necessary. This includes information necessary to an understanding of the minimum essentials in this list.

9. The main outline of the story of history is the most important. If lack of time necessitates the elimination of a part of a syllabus, the main outline must be taught and the details left out.

10. Further, the laws of the State must be considered. The Minnesota laws require a study of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution of the United States. While these documents are obviously essential, this legal requirement demands a heavier emphasis of the constitutional aspects of American history than is sometimes the custom.

11. The syllabus should follow a scheme of vertical planning. This is not only pedagogically correct, but it avoids needless repetition and prevents the neglect of important elements. This vertical planning should not overlook the really important amount of historical information which is taught in the lower grades. The vertical plan should provide an elastic limit of two weeks at the beginning and end of each year. The material provided during this period can be taught or omitted in accordance with the previous preparation of the particular class in question.

12. The proper use of previous knowledge is important. The instructor should not dwell on information with which the student is already familiar. Thus the story of Columbus is out of place in a high school syllabus.

13. It is important to decide whether the syllabus is to be arranged topically or chronologically. The first method is perhaps the more scientific, but the latter presents the all-around view, which is essential to a young student who has not yet obtained a general survey of the field of history. Hence, the topical organization may be used sparingly in some parts of the American history outline, but should not be used at all in the ancient history or modern history syllabi.

14. The syllabi should be carefully graded. The fact that ninth and tenth grade students, respectively, are to study the outlines in ancient history and modern history requires the omission of many difficult matters which otherwise would be deemed essential.

¹ Syndicate Publishing Company, St. Paul, Minn.

A Junior High School Civics Club

BY PROFESSOR R. W. OGAN, MUSKINGUM COLLEGE

It is the purpose of this article to describe the organization of an eighth grade class for the purpose of teaching citizenship by giving pupils actual experience in the government of their school community.

Forty pupils of normal age and making normal progress through the grades composed the civics club organized. The sponsor of the club, as teacher of English and social studies, knew the pupils individually and intimately. Recitation periods were forty-five minutes in length.

The possibility of organizing the class suggested itself to the students early in the term, possibly because in the previous grade they had elected monitors to proctor the marching lines and police the room for irregular conduct. This precedent furnished the

starting point in the process of developing and directing the student demand for a civic organization.

During the first six weeks considerable practice in the technique of conducting a public meeting was given the pupils in their oral English assignments. More important than this as a preparation for the organization project were the frequent incidental discussions in the community civics class of fundamental questions in the ethics of citizenship. These forum discussions were genuinely enjoyed by the class and truly served to remold student sentiment. The most seriously and vigorously discussed question was, "Is it right 'to tell'?" The group finally decided that when the informant acts because of an honest desire to better the community in which he is interested he

is right in telling; that any other motive in telling is unworthy and an informant acting from a wrong motive is a "tattle-tale."

At the end of the first six weeks the students enthusiastically undertook the project of organizing their class. A student committee on Constitution and By-Laws, with a minimum of aid from the sponsor, prepared and presented to the class a constitution which was unanimously adopted.¹

Following the adoption of the constitution was the election of officers. This election was carried on with genuine dignity and an air of seriousness. An official position was truly a coveted honor and was awarded to the most capable student leader in practically every case. This class spirit served to stimulate those elected; the new officers really purposed to be efficient and worthy of the trust and respect of their fellows. At this initial meeting one student sprang a surprise by skillfully putting a motion that each president of the club be expected to make an inaugural address and a farewell address at the beginning and end of his term, respectively. This motion carried unanimously with gusto. This student assignment caused the president later to speak from a far different motive, in a different spirit, and with more success and gratification to himself and to the class than he probably ever would have experienced from the performance of a teacher assignment, however skillfully made. The responsibility the president-elect felt made him really have the learner's attitude in the preparation for his speech. The sponsor found him peculiarly amenable to instruction which was individual and private and at the student's request.

At the first regular meeting of the club, a simple, impressive ceremony of swearing in the new officers was observed, with the president pro tem. in the chair. The president, inspired by the sympathetic, expectant attitude of his audience, stimulated by the spirit of the occasion, and made confident by a thorough preparation, forgot himself in his enthusiasm, and, without reference to his notes, made the most effective seven minutes' talk he ever made before his class. In brief, he thanked the students for his election and pledged himself to the faithful performance of his duties. His talk rang with the sentiment that here is *our* school community in which *we* feel a mutual pride and in which we have enough interest that we want to make it still better. At the end of this term we must be able to point to worth-while accomplishments which we have achieved by co-operation. The fact that we unanimously voted to undertake the club means that we have pledged our loyalty to it; now it must succeed.

At the suggestion of the council the first project undertaken was the beautifying of the classroom, which included eliminating unnecessary work for the janitor. A skillfully made suggestion or a judicious word of praise from this rather ingenious official served materially to lighten his work a number of times during the term. Frequently the chairman of the student council sought him out prior to his pres-

entation of suggestions at the regular meetings and secured gratifying comments or stimulating suggestions which he subsequently offered in his report as a quotation to the decided satisfaction and pride of the class.

Student initiative steadily grew. The pupils of the council and others were constantly thinking of new, constructive acts of school citizenship which the club might undertake. Needed advice and direction was eagerly sought from the sponsor. Each project undertaken was a decided success, and at the end of the school year a goodly number of projects remained on the roster to be undertaken the following year.

The following briefly described activities were the most important ones of the club's first year. The club:

1. Planned and executed a program for keeping their classroom orderly, neat, and attractive in appearance.
2. Secured a library of books and magazines through personal loans and through systematic collection of standard magazines from friends of the school who had finished with them.
3. Put across splendid "pep meetings" before contests.
4. Proctored marching lines; planned means of entrance and exit.
5. Provided flowers for the classroom during the winter. (This was the special project of a group of girls.)
6. Prepared one issue of a school paper.
7. Carried on a courtesy campaign in co-operation with the art department. During courtesy week attractive posters, carefully prepared, were exhibited in the classroom and corridors. Each day a good speaker, elected by the club from its membership, talked five minutes on courtesy. The final meeting, a school assembly, was occupied by two club speakers and two speakers secured by the students from a nearby college.
8. Promoted fair play.
9. Promoted careful use of the school property. When an epidemic of writing on the walls broke out the club was strong enough to stop it.
10. Provided wholesome, enjoyable school parties.
11. Did much of the detail work in staging the annual school play, such as securing scenery, caring for stage furniture, and auditorium during practices, decorating, wiring, and the like.
12. Decorated classroom for various occasions.
13. Extended special courtesies to friends sick or in sorrow.
14. Provided two attractive bulletin boards for the classroom.
15. Furnished financial aid in securing school supplies.
16. Held a weekly forum discussion of current events under the guidance of the sponsor.
17. Studied legislative procedure by resolving the group into a legislative body and passing bills.

Aside from the value of these projects in themselves they furnished the occasion for teaching a personal appreciation of many aspects of citizenship incidentally. Thus the large amount of detail work necessitated the use of the committee system, and the skillful delegating of duty and responsibility. The new needs consequent on activities of ever widening scope and complexity showed that an adequate legal code must ever be evolving with society, and that the constitution should be a statement of governing principles. Even then it may need amendment. The meaning and significance of full executive responsi-

bility was emphasized. Other outcomes of this program included an appreciation of the amount of detail work necessary to a community betterment program, the necessity of having a carefully thought-out and planned project before suggesting it to a group for their action, the importance of dignity, the characteristics of a spirit of leadership, the importance of public speaking ability to the community leader, the significance of group opinion, and the difficulty of being original and constructive in suggestions for community betterment.

Early in the club's history the council and the sponsor worked out a set of criteria for judging the success of the work, which were adopted with some minor change by the group. Following is a statement of the original list proposed and adopted:

1. Why would you be any prouder to have a visitor call than before you organized the club?
2. Does each member take the club seriously? Does he co-operate with the group?
3. Would a visitor be impressed with the ease, dignity, and correctness with which meetings are carried on?
4. In their club activities, do officers and members act in a spirit of kindness with the sincere purpose of making the school community better?
5. Is there sufficient preparation for each meeting of the class by each member?
6. Are some really new projects worked out each term?
7. Is every member of the club responsible during the term for some special service?
8. Is each member familiar with the constitution? the duties of the officers? the real purpose of the club? these criteria?
9. Are all club records neatly and accurately kept up-to-date?
10. Do members show respect to officers?
11. Do members so act as to deserve respect of members?
12. Do committeemen hold in confidence the discussions in committee meetings that should not be made public?

These criteria served as a basis for evaluating the quality of the work being done. The president was first responsible for the entire club, and he, in turn, by the force of his leadership, had the obligation of holding others responsible. Specific duties and powers were exercised by officers only after approved by the sponsor and voted by the class. In no case, however, did the student council suggest giving a power or duty to an officer when it was not given by the class. The sponsor took the position before the group, "This is your club; you are held responsible for its success; how you work is not so important as that you succeed; the club must not be a joke; you may continue it as long as it succeeds; you may do everything that you show you can do successfully."

The small amount of negative conduct was a satisfying feature of the club program. However, no community is entirely free from misdemeanors on the part of certain citizens. It was the practice for the council chairman to give a pupil offending against student-initiated and -adopted regulation a private warning twice. Usually this sufficed. If not sufficient, however, public warning or reprimand before the club was given once by the student leader serving as president. In almost every case this was sufficient. However, in certain cases more drastic

action was necessary. In no case did student control lead to a compromise with wrong.

Two illustrations of the method of handling the only difficult cases of discipline may serve to show the spirit of the club:

During courtesy campaign week two lads discourteously whispered during a visiting speaker's talk much to his embarrassment and that of the majority of the class.

Later the offending members were called before the council singly to explain their conduct. (The sponsor was present but took no direct part in the interview.) The initial spirit of each lad was to jest and treat the matter lightly and rather defy the council to correct them, but soon they sensed the fact that their friends on the council were seriously in earnest and very much disapproved their discourteousness of the day before. With this realization the situation became painfully embarrassing. The courteous dignity and formality of the council in asking a few pointed questions and leaving a long interval of silence, which evidently was to be taken in explanation, and the apparent impossibility of drawing the council chairman into an argument, made a situation altogether unforeseen and unexpected, and, therefore, thoroughly discomfiting. The stammering explanations and attempted justifications sounded particularly hollow and shallow before these stern companions and friends who condemned the misdemeanor.

The final settlement was that at the proposal of the culprits themselves the council suggested their offering a personal apology to the speaker at his college office, after which they should each offer an apology at a regular club meeting for throwing an unfavorable light upon the club.

Ever after these lads proved themselves worthy of the esteem of their fellow club members who elected each of them to the honored position of councilman. Here the lads served faithfully and efficiently.

Another more difficult case required still more drastic action:

A young lad, himself a councilman, for several days disturbed aggravatingly and slyly during the music recitation in charge of a special, part-time teacher. The lad was undiscovered by the teacher, however, and she could take no action. But the club president, a loyal, conscientious lad, devoted to the interests of the club which he truly respected, came to the sponsor, discouraged, and said: "Last term there was no trouble; this term I believe some are regarding the club as a joke. One of the council members is the worst. John has been acting worse in the music period than anyone has acted all year. I don't see how we can help failing when one of the officers is the worst." The lad was thoroughly discouraged and downhearted in the face of what seemed to him an insurmountable difficulty which would wreck the organization. And well he might be.

The advisor replied: "Well, that is our problem. Let's think about it and see what can be done. Why be discouraged because you can't see at once what to do? Do you suppose the mayor of a city or the president of a corporation always knows how to solve every problem as soon as he sees it? We know we must solve this problem, so let's think about it until tomorrow, and then, perhaps, you had better call a special committee of the council and think it over with them. Meantime, do not discuss the matter with any one other than a council member."

As a result of the next day's meeting the culprit was called before the council for explanation very much in the same manner as explained above. The lad was more inclined to be argumentative and bold. He could not draw the council chairman into an argument. When he had finished his answers to the questions asked him the lad seated himself to wait action. A girl member surprised him by making the motion that John be excused to the classroom and the motion carried unanimously.

The lad left the room in painful embarrassment and filled with unpleasant anticipation of what the council might do, and, worst of all, genuinely appreciating that his mis-

demeanors had brought genuine disapprobation of his friends rather than approbation.

When again alone in the committee room the council appealed to the sponsor for suggestions. The sponsor said: "This is your club; you will be judged by its success. If you think John will make a better councilman hereafter you might give him another chance. You might ask him to apologize; you might ask the club to vote for asking him to resign; you might ask the teacher to punish him. Whatever you do, remember you must act in a spirit of kindness." With this the sponsor left the committee to make its own decision and returned to the class routine.

That evening at a called meeting of the club a councilman came before the club to report their decision. The gist of the report, made by one of the most popular little girls in the club, was that John had showed himself unworthy of the honor that the club had bestowed upon him and had not lived up to his oath of office. His wrong action was all the worse for the office that he held. A spirit like his would ruin the club and make it into a joke. The council recommends that in order to safeguard the club that John be asked to resign. Quickly a member rose and with appropriate remarks moved that Mr. A. be asked to leave the room while a vote was taken. The motion carried, but not until the offending member had arisen to say, with a lump in his throat, "You needn't to vote; I'll resign without that."

On the culprit's leaving the room the sponsor merely urged the club to consider well how they were voting; to be as kind as they could to John and be consistent with what they truly believed to be to the club's best interests. The motion was unanimously carried; the teller brought the lad back into the room; the chairman quietly announced the vote; the lad had learned a lesson. The president felt encouraged for he felt that he could count on the support of his class to make the club a real success. This was the last and hardest case of discipline during the year.

It is in this type of activity that the gravest responsibility is thrown on the sponsor. Immature children cannot logically be expected unguided to mete out punishment of appropriate degrees of severity, to give proper punishments, or to successfully carry on an interview such as described above without careful guidance. The sponsor's most careful judgment and lavish expenditure of time in thinking, planning, and holding conferences with pupils is demanded. He must lead, direct, and control without assuming the student's responsibility or checking student initiative. Students must feel the possession of genuine power of decision and choice.

In a special written exercise during the last formal class exercise of the year in community civics, the students wrote answers, first, to the question, "List in order of their value to the school the most worthwhile things done by the club." Following is a statement of the best answer:

1. "We have gotten the students not to do bad things not by ordering them, but by letting them use their own judgment and pride."
2. "The students have learned something of the way that our national government is run."
3. "The students have learned a little bit about how it's going to be in life and that it's not so soft as you might think for." (This lad was president at the time the unworthy councilman was asked to resign.)
4. "The students have given their respect to the president and we have, therefore, been able to carry out the meetings more successfully."
5. "The students have taken heed of the council and of the speakers of courtesy campaign, not with anger and thinking we are bossing them, but from their own

pride, and we can, therefore, keep our room a more ideal one."

The second question asked was: "List five important things you have learned because of the club?" Following are typical answers:

1. "I have learned, I hope, to be a little more polite and courteous."
2. "It isn't wise to go against the will of everybody else sometimes."
3. "A little bit about how to make a good speech."
4. "More about how government is run."
5. "To always use co-operation."
6. "I have learned that it takes grit to be a councilman."
7. "How to write minutes."
8. "How to make an outline."
9. "To have punctuality in bringing back library books."
10. "Many different things about current events."
11. "Boys and girls can work together and make a good school."
12. "How to use teamwork in current events study."
13. "How to do business in a business-like way and how to make out a treasurer's report."
14. I have learned to attend to my own bizness and to go with the class in every thing and not agents them."
15. "How to make a better speech."
16. "How to conduct club meetings."
17. "How and when to speak in club."
18. "How to carry on an election of club officers."
19. "How to get rid of a rotten officer."
20. "How to do the librarian's work."
21. "How to conduct pep meetings."
22. "What traits of character an officer should have."

In conclusion, let it be said that the above account is offered not as a standard of excellence by any means, but with the hope that it may be suggestive to teachers in teaching citizenship by making the school into a practice community where students are trained in making worthy responses to social situations.

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I

Name

This club shall be known as the Civic Club of.....
.....School.

ARTICLE II

Purpose of the Club

The purpose of the Civic Club shall be to (1) promote a high standard of school citizenship and (2) to study current events in a weekly forum.

ARTICLE III

Officers

The officers shall be a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, librarian, and a student council, composed of the president and vice-president and four other persons elected by the club.

ARTICLE IV

Duties of Officers

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the president to preside at all meetings of the club, to represent the club on all public occasions, to serve as a member of all standing committees, to preserve order, and to assume full general responsibility for the proper functioning of the club.

Sec. 2. It shall be the duty of the vice-president to perform all the duties of the president in his absence, to serve as a member of all standing committees, and at all times to assist the president in the performance of his duties.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the secretary to prepare the minutes of each meeting and to carry on the correspondence of the club.

Sec. 4. It shall be the duty of the treasurer to take care of all the club's money, to be prepared to report at each regular meeting the exact condition of the treasury, and to pay out money when authorized to do so by a

majority vote of the class and a written order signed by the president and secretary.

Sec. 5. It shall be the duty of the librarian to promote the proper use of the library, to keep adequate records, and to collect all fines which the class may assess for the misuse of the library privilege.

Sec. 6. It shall be the duty of the student council to assume direct responsibility for the bettering of school citizenship, for suggesting to the club possible projects in citizenship, for preparing and presenting all business pertaining to citizenship of the club at each regular meeting, for enforcing the club's orders, and for making decisions when it is unnecessary to call a meeting of the entire club.

Sec. 7. The faculty sponsor shall be Mr. A. and he shall have the power of advising and vetoing club activities and policies.

ARTICLE V *Term of Office*

SECTION 1. All officers shall be elected at a regular meeting by a majority vote of the club's full membership for a six weeks' term.

Sec. 2. No person may serve in the same office for two consecutive terms.

Sec. 3. The manner of voting shall be determined at the time of the election.

Sec. 4. All temporary vacancies shall be filled by persons appointed by the student council; all permanent vacancies shall be filled by a special election.

ARTICLE VI *Amendment*

This constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of the full membership, provided

that a notice of the proposed amendment was given at the previous regular meeting.

ARTICLE VII *Time of Meeting*

SECTION 1. Regular meetings shall be held on Friday during the period beginning at 12.45 P. M.

Sec. 2. Special meetings may be called by the president with the advice of the teacher.

ARTICLE VIII *Powers of the Club*

SECTION 1. The club shall have power to make and enforce such requests as may be just and necessary to secure the highest quality of school citizenship.

Sec. 2. The club shall have power to enact and enforce any rules necessary and proper for carrying this constitution into effect.

Sec. 3. The club shall act with the consent of the sponsor.

BY-LAWS

SECTION 1. At all regular meetings of the club the following order of business shall be observed:

Call to order by the president; reading of minutes of last meeting by the secretary; report of student council; report of standing committees; report of special committees; old business; new business; report of committees for current events forum.

Sec. 2. A fine of 1 cent per day shall be charged for each time a book is out of the club's library overtime.

Sec. 3. The student council shall meet each Thursday at 3.30 P. M.

Informal Dramatization

BY MARGARET WELSH, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

Every child of ordinary intelligence loves to suppose or to play that he is somebody else. A keen sense of imagination is not needed. I know a very prosaic and commonplace little girl who lived through years of being "Collie Fuchie," a character none of her family or friends ever did trace to its origin, when the world looked rosy and her disposition was good, and of being at other times an ugly character named "Mamie Corleen," equally lacking in ancestry. These two characters could adapt themselves to all moods, and one was the heroine and the other the villainess accompanying her through all the queer experiences of her childhood days. I mention this because of the fact that this child was neither a freak nor a genius, but an ordinary little girl. Only her immediate friends and family know that she had these visions of a dual, or, may I say, triple, personality. How many children, seemingly lacking in imagination or originality, are living in the clouds, and if given a chance would love to express themselves and act the part of others, having great fun, but not only that, gaining in information and becoming "historically minded."

Personally, I have always been interested in dramatization in the schoolroom, but now I feel that it is decidedly worth while. By dramatization in this article I do not mean the formal practiced and re-practiced type of play or pageant, although there is a great place of merit for both in the various school

courses. What I do mean will, I think, develop by concrete example, making a definition unnecessary.

Much has been written in favor of this motivated form of expression, but the greater part refers to the more formal type. All history teachers today agree, I believe, that "history should be made up of concrete examples and the personal element constantly emphasized." "The central aim in the teaching of history, that of reseeing and reliving past times and situations, can be more nearly realized through dramatizations than through any other device, pictures not excepted. It satisfies three purposes—it stimulates the imagination, it arouses emotions, and it furnishes a satisfying vehicle of self-expression," says D. C. Knowlton, of Columbia, while Claude Merton Wise, Professor of Dramatic Literature and Director of Drama of the State Teachers' College, of Kirksville, Missouri, says, "Dramatization is instinctive, even as other kinds of play are instinctive. The media of dramatization, language, facial expression, and bodily posturing are identical with the regular media of the child's self-expression. Thorndike's experiments have shown that the verbal thought material is forgotten many times more rapidly than motor skill. Whenever it is possible to tie up the verbal memory process with the motor memory process, it is surely economy to do so."

Granted that dramatization is at least worth trying, what historical events can be used, and how?

When an event is studied, or even told to children, it is surely done with the idea of implanting an idea of that event in the child's mind. If the event is visualized, as it must be if anything is accomplished, there must be a reaction, and what reaction is more positive than the re-enacting of that event. In that re-enacting, the child must think through the mental processes of the person he is impersonating and he must transplant himself into other times and surroundings. As a matter of course, he must live through the mental processes of the other members of his little re-enacting group.

For example: a fifth grade class has studied, in narrative form, the early pilgrimages—the objects of the pilgrims in undertaking these trips, the difficulties encountered, and finally the attack on the holy shrines by the Turks. What will the whole Christian Church do? To whom will the persecuted appeal? Naturally, to the Pope. What will be his suggestion? How will he get his word to the people? What inducements will he offer? What excuses may some give?

Nothing could be more natural than the following day, after the class has investigated all available references, to turn the empty space in the schoolroom into a great field, Pope Urban on a chair about to address the crowd, the multitude gathering, discussing in groups the work they left behind, the perils of their trip and the harrowing tales of friends returned from Palestine.

After the Pope's plea, and the final decision of many to go, will it be necessary to drill this class on the fact that the Crusade movement was a great one, encouraged somewhat perhaps by the spirit of adventure, but that the spirit of the majority was one of sincerity to their God and to their Church? Don't leave these Crusaders here. If the affairs in Jerusalem are too gory for dramatization, at least have a meeting of the returned Crusaders. They will talk about the lands that they have seen, and actually bring back the spices and silks of that land. The Westerners will listen and they will gaze spell-bound and express a desire to see this strange land of which they formerly knew nothing. They will want to see new scenes and enjoy the excitement of their brothers and neighbors.

But, you probably ask, are you being true to facts? No, but which means more to the fifth grader to say, "The Pope issued a Papal bull," or to allow some youngster to drape a girl's coat over his shoulders, mount a chair, which of course represents a knoll or possibly stump or platform, and talk to his children? Is it not true that the more concrete we make facts for children, and the more we adapt facts to their every-day lives, the more real in meaning they are, and is that not one of the aims of the teacher of history—to make facts real?

Do not let stage accoutrements discourage you. A coat over the head and fastened under the chin portrays a Salem witch beautifully, a coat flowing from the shoulders without using sleeves makes a convincing mantle, the same put on skirt fashion furnishes

a train for Queen Isabella, while the garment simply draped from one shoulder and caught under the opposite arm gives a very gladiatorial effect. Just leave this to the children. I once saw a little fifth grade girl fall off the top of her desk, which was a part of the improvised balcony for a knightly combat. When reprimanded for being silly, she answered seriously and in good faith, "But the sight of blood always makes me sick," the imaginary blood having been drawn by the pointer, which a few weeks after served as the Pope's staff. Let me add, however, that sometimes the available properties are too realistic, as was a case of my acquaintance when a boy borrowed the teacher's coat, as that with its fur collar helped him portray his part of nobleman admirably, he thought. In pleading before the king for extended land area, he shouted: "But, Your Majesty, I am in need. I have no money. I am in rags," as he threw back the coat, displaying a very ragged lining, much to the embarrassment of the teacher.

Development of a problem is not the only place in which informal dramatization can be used. Most junior high classes must be taught to study. The complaint of teachers that children do not understand what they read is a common one. Try having them do what they read instead of telling it. For example, Mace in "School History of the United States," page 80, in discussing rather vaguely the growing dissatisfaction of the Dutch in New Amsterdam, says, "Besides, as the Dutch traders journeyed about they learned of the town governments of New England and gained many new ideas from English Puritans settled on Long Island." This sentence has the possibilities of a two-act drama. Without any preliminaries other than the study of New England institutions which always precedes the study of New York, several Dutch traders may be pursuing their livelihood in New England (be explicit about the town), or in a Puritan settlement of Long Island. Conversation turns to government, they compare rights and restrictions with the New Englanders, the traders later in common discuss their lot, return to New Amsterdam, tell other Dutchmen what they heard, and make possible suggestions. Then the class may read on and more can be contributed to the conversation. They will anticipate that Peter Stuyvesant will have difficulty in encouraging the Dutch to fight against English annexation if such a suggestion is ever made by England.

This little scheme, used often enough, will arouse children from a common lethargy during either oral or silent reading. They have to be more alert and also sure of their past events, for "a show audience" is more alert than a "lecture audience."

Dramatization helps do away with the horrors brought to mind by that awful word "review." A junior high group has just spent perhaps two weeks on an intensive study of Roosevelt, the room hero. They have read extracts from his works, studied his biography, made illustrations depicting scenes from his life, but now it is time to do a little reorganizing.

Would it not be cruel to say, "Tomorrow be ready for a review of Roosevelt's life," when it is just as easy to say, "Tomorrow we shall show events that you enjoyed in Roosevelt's life. Choose your event and your helpers." The last time that we did this we made a list of the episodes before beginning the recitation, or show, as they call it, and ran through them in order. The series was something like this:

First—A Dutch couple, thus showing Roosevelt's ancestry.

Second—A big boy in a pugilistic-looking slipover sweater, impersonating Theodore's early trainer, and a little, weak chap, who fell at the first blow. The announcer helped us to live through several months in a few seconds and see Roosevelt hold his own with the burly trainer. A few months later he showed almost as much expansion and power as the trainer. (Exaggerated, but their idea of perseverance overcoming physical defects.)

Third—Near-sighted Theodore with his game bag, remarking as he strides across the floor that a sportsman of the real sort is never judged by the size of his game bag.

And so on the episodes continued through Roosevelt's political reforms, Rough Rider life, Presidential career, and finally a very good rendering of the Roosevelt Creed and of his death as they had read of it in a child's biography. When children of younger age are left to things of this kind it is quite noticeable that they choose the very active events, while junior high people like the active and an element of pathos or tragedy.

The Continental Congresses and Philadelphia Convention adapt themselves very well to dramatization, either as development work or as a review. Often impromptu dramatization can be done each day; for instance, the problem may be, "How were the delegates chosen and how were their expenses paid?" The Virginia Legislature can be quickly called together for an example if the class has information, or the problem may be left until the following day if investigation is needed. Many small matters can be acted out day by day, with a portrayal of the whole meeting for a review. There need be no worry about deadened interest—the different actors will assume various rôles and the whole will have a more finished air than before.

Classes like to have little surprises in this kind of work. Let the boys be entirely responsible for a dramatization of some complete event and the girls of another, with a chairman either elected or appointed. Often the children can place the characters more ideally than the teacher, and I have noticed that they are very impartial, and if one cannot take a leading part he can make announcements, be a part of the crowd, or at least pound the bass notes on the piano to represent cannon in the distance.

A very successful review of the important national and international events of the summer was done in that way, after they had been discussed in class. The girls planned and showed the first meeting of the Ladies' Aid after the summer recess. This proved

to be so successful that they were asked by their principal, who happened to drop in during the rendition, to give it at an evening Parent-Teacher meeting. We polished up the original, and the girls discussed very informally over their teacups and sewing the Round-the-World Fliers, the Presidential Nominating Conventions, Olympic games, and so on. It was perhaps, as one of the fathers said, "The Ladies' Aid conversation as it should be," rather than "as it is."

Teachers often refuse to try this method of teaching, saying that it necessitates too much work. It does mean work, as the teacher must know the subject-matter absolutely and must be able to guide the class through their conversation. There will be times when the characters all want to talk at once and other times when no one has an idea for expression. For this reason she must have seen her way through the entire dramatization before the class begins. She may not be needed, but she must be ready for emergencies. The common objection concerning properties has been mentioned. Then, too, children do so love to dress up that they sometimes think more of finding something in the attic than of following the actual trend of the experiences of the characters they are to portray. For this reason, lack of costuming is a help in accurate dramatization rather than a hindrance. A girl's supreme happiness comes in wearing a long skirt and a boy's in carrying a gun.

Objection may be made to the noise and confusion resulting from a lesson of this kind. At first trial, the children may be unduly noisy and think it a joke, but after being deprived of a history play period two or three times they will settle down to business. The point mentioned of the teacher's having thought the thing through before beginning may be repeated here. When the confusion becomes mere hubbub she can say, "Bill, you are Calhoun, make your suggestion for secession now, then Jackson may reply," thus steering the ship out of chaos. Confusion is avoided by making a brief outline of the events to be enacted in order on the board before the dramatization begins. This is almost necessary in many cases. I have often listed the names of the characters on the board, connecting each with the name of the child playing that part, but I have noticed that the children never refer to that list. They always know which is Hancock, Jefferson, and so on, which may prove that children can make adjustments more easily than adults. When one is floundering for an idea or for an expression of an idea, he generally receives help from the others. For example: Franklin may have demanded rights of the Colonists from the King, and George III may not be gifted in imaginary or linguistic powers. Franklin undoubtedly will say in an undertone, "Tell me to shut up and mind my own business, that this is your kingdom, not mine," and George III will rally. However, no informal dramatization that I have ever seen has run in the least smoothly.

I have considered dramatization from an historical standpoint only. That it has great values in teaching

clear expression in English, in overcoming self-consciousness, and in developing initiative and resourcefulness in general cannot be questioned.

I think this form of education has its place in the history program from the grade where history is first taught, through seventh grade, and in eighth if the class is not too sophisticated. I may have had classes unusually lacking in self-consciousness, but I do not think this is the case. Authorities agree that in eighth grade and above there is a wider place for actual memorizing of long questions and speeches. Older children seem to be able to cover self-consciousness by using the words of others rather than their own. Knowlton, however, says concerning children of this age, "The adolescent child responds more readily to activities than to the more formal type of textbook work. He is essentially interested in action. While he may call up for his purpose people long since dead, and scenes long since forgotten, his picture is always a thing of life and action and movement, because he has injected himself into it, reliving its tense moments and re-enacting its thrilling episodes."

Miss Findlay Johnson in summarizing the benefits derived from dramatization in her own classroom in

England says, "It developed perseverance, ingenuity, and resourcefulness, a free clean speech, and a right attitude toward textbooks and all other sources of information."

That dramatization really helps toward "a mastery of certain fields and processes necessary to a fair and complete understanding of the past and a better understanding of the present" I know is true, for it was my experience to teach a class in fifth grade Medieval History where some work of this nature was done, and to meet the same class again in junior high school. Members often compared events that they were then studying with events of the fifth grade course, and the events really remembered in their proper setting and connection were those I had encouraged them to dramatize in the lower grade.

In conclusion, I will say that informal dramatization is possible, enjoyable, not especially difficult to handle, and is really a practical means of teaching history. The following words are those of Ellen Cyr, author of children's readers: "The best teachers are those who lead their pupils into activities which, based upon the fundamental instincts of child nature, are to test and examine everything and to attempt all feats."

Using the Sources in the Elementary School

BY MARY HARDEN, EASTERN ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CHARLESTON, ILL.

Over a quarter of a century ago Professors Fling and Caldwell, writing of the vogue of the laboratory method in the teaching of the sciences, said, "That the laboratory method was the only method to be employed in teaching the sciences was quite clear. That it had a universal application and might be as readily employed in teaching other subjects was not so clear....The impulse to change generally comes from the top, and it was only in the last generation that the historical method was sufficiently developed to make it possible for teachers of history to give that impulse. Up to the present time, however, it has made the greatest progress in the universities and better colleges and has not produced a very deep impression upon the secondary schools. Yet the signs are not lacking to prove that the time has come for energetic and systematic work in the grades below the college."¹

So after twenty-five years through the strenuous efforts of teachers and historians, the source method in some form or other is used in nearly all high school teaching. Such a statement cannot be made for the elementary schools. But are not conditions more favorable for more energetic and more systematic work in the grades below the high school? For the past few years much criticism has been directed against the teaching of history. According to these criticisms teachers of history are actually teaching the reigns of kings and queens by rote, are keeping the past ever in the foreground, and are thumbing the textbook, the only evidence of pupil

activity in the history classroom. In the light of such criticisms it might be well to recall the objectives of history teaching. According to Professor Johnson, whether it is history for the first grade or whether it is history for the higher grades, the aim of history teaching is to make the world intelligible.² The underlying principle of this objective is development. It is necessary that pupils be taught history which will enable them to understand of what the past was, of how it came to be, and of how the present grew out of it. There must be an understanding of the past if the aim of history teaching is to be realized.³ Such an objective cannot be realized through the "thumbing of a textbook." In view of the fact that in the realm of educational methods the old is now new, are not the signs favorable for a wider use of the sources in the elementary school? Then to many comes the perplexing question, where in the elementary school and how shall children be introduced to a study of the sources? The study of the sources may begin in the first grade if the teacher wishes to make the introduction at that time. In fact, first-grade teachers, whether they realize it or not, are using the sources when they encourage children to bring to school and to talk about Indian relics which have been dug from the ground. In the fourth or fifth grade pupils can easily be guided to state the different ways of knowing about the past. The approach to such a lesson was made by introducing a discussion of current events. As an outgrowth of such a discussion the teacher selected a

particular event for further consideration. Soon after the Shenandoah disaster a teacher, asking the pupils, "How did you hear about it?" received the following replies:

"My father told me."

"I read it in the newspaper."

"My aunt told my mother in a letter that she saw the wreck."

"We heard it over the radio."

"I saw pictures in the paper."

These answers were written on the board and then the pupils were led to see how they actually get information about important events:

By hearing.

By reading.

By seeing.

The basis of the lesson following was a past event in the local history of the community. The children were asked to find out something about Charleston that happened in the past—a much longer time ago than the event just discussed. (For an exercise of this type it is necessary that the teacher be familiar with the history of the community in which she teaches.) Again the pupils were asked how they knew about this event. The answers here did not vary much from those given in the previous lesson, but did contain the added information:

"By statue."

"By tablet markers."

In connection with this study the idea of not accepting one person's word as final authority upon any subject can be emphasized. For example, in Charleston the marker which locates the place of debate between Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas is not properly placed, neither is it properly dated. This bit of inaccuracy was given by the teacher. She then asked the pupils, "How can we find out if this information is really correct?" The first pupil's reply suggested that someone ask the professor of history in the college. Then the teacher asked, "Will someone suggest a better way of finding out than merely accepting the answer of a teacher of history?" or she could have asked, "How does he know where the marker should be placed?" The question which followed was, "To be at all certain about the truth of this statement what should we do?" From here the desired results were easily secured. The following suggestions were given:

"Ask someone who actually heard the debate."

"Ask more than one person."

"Ask as many persons who heard the debate as you can find."

The result was that the pupils caught the spirit of the exercise, for they soon realized that in order to be at all secure in historical conclusions one must have as many accounts of an event as possible, and that one must accept only those accounts which agree in general details.

Such exercise prepares pupils for source material appropriate for history of a different character. Probably no other type of classroom procedure ap-

peals so strongly to young children as dramatization, for it affords an opportunity to become a part of the past. To be an actual participant in an event is far more interesting to a pupil than to be a mere listener to a colorless reproduction of a brief generalization which is full of meaning only to the adult whose mind is stored with details of history. To illustrate the possibilities of using the sources in dramatization I shall describe a unit of work in the fourth grade.

This grade was studying colonial life and the teacher who directs the classroom activities in history was urging the teacher in charge to introduce supplementary source material. The suggestions were not being met with much enthusiasm for the teacher felt that it would make the work too difficult for this grade.

The supervising teacher was about to withdraw her suggestions when the children came to her rescue. A parent's day was planned and when the problem of how to entertain the visitors was put before the class, they suggested using their history period. The previous work in history had been so well presented that the interest of the pupils was intense. Thus the teacher was confronted with the problem of how to utilize this interest. The plan finally worked out was to dramatize some incidents of colonial life, basing them on source material. Here was a real purpose to be realized. The following general plan was adopted as a most workable one.

The class was kept as a unit for general instruction, and was then divided into smaller groups for working out the suggestions as given in the class lesson. Each group determined its own work. One group instead of dramatizing an event decided to construct a cabin of colonial times. Here great difficulties were met. One child brought a small cabin that had been made by his father when he was a boy. It did not take this class very long to decide that it was not built according to any information which they had. This particular group resorted to oral tradition. One pupil's father had lived in a log cabin in pioneer days in the West. His father had also lived in a log cabin of the previous pioneer days. In this way they learned how these cabins differed from those of colonial times. A cabin 10 inches by 16 inches by 20 inches constructed with the greatest feeling for accuracy was the result. Some rugs for the cabin were woven by another group.

Dramatizing a colonial school and church service and the playing of colonial games formed the principal part of the program. Chairs were arranged to represent the interior of the school room, and children as in colonial days sat with their faces toward the wall. The lessons of this school were studied from the horn-book and the New England Primer. The horn-books were made by the children in manual training. Many other interesting details were added so that a colonial atmosphere permeated the school-room. No colonial school ever droned their lessons more intelligently than did these colonists of 1925.

The New England church meeting was very expressive of colonial times. The tithe master was very much in evidence and he found it quite a task to keep the members of the congregation awake while the minister preached his sermon. The minister read selected parts of John Cotton's "God's Promise to His Plantation."⁴ The hymns, "Dundee" and "Old Hundred," were sung in unison and unaccompanied. These psalms are two of the five which were generally sung in colonial times.

As a closing number of the program the children played two common colonial games, "Honey Pots" and the "Jolly Miller." For this program day the children were dressed in costumes which the mothers had made from the descriptions brought home from the history class. Each child had a colonial name which he gave in introducing himself at the beginning of the program. In connection with this work the pupils showed some colonial booklets during the visiting period, the covers of which were attractively decorated in cut-paper designs suggested by a study of postal cards obtained from the Essex Institute, Salem, Massachusetts.

The second illustration of dramatizing historical incidents based upon historical sources was the making of the Constitution of the United States by the seventh grade. The approach was made through an introductory lesson taught for the purpose of creating a certain amount of curiosity about how the delegates to the Philadelphia convention finally made the constitution. The question of "how we will find out" can be met if the pupils have had training similar to the exercises described in the first part of this paper. The teacher, by introducing the names of some of the delegates to the convention, found that the pupils offered the suggestion that perhaps one could find something these men had written about the convention. This created the opportunity for the introduction of *Madison's Journal*. The teacher presented a complete list of the membership of the convention and from this list each pupil selected the person that he wished to represent in the convention. In order to fully appreciate the qualities of the men, the pupils who were to represent each one reported to the class how he looked, and how he was likely to act, after studying descriptions and pictures which were made nearest the time of the Constitutional Convention.

After these preliminary exercises the convention was ready to organize for work. Robert Morris of Pennsylvania presented the name of Washington for chairman. The motion was seconded by John Rutledge of South Carolina. Washington, who was unanimously elected, was conducted to the chair by Robert Morris and John Rutledge. In his most dignified manner Washington thanked the members for the great honor which had been bestowed upon him. After the election of William Jackson as secretary and the appointment of a committee on rules the convention was adjourned. No gathering of delegates ever carried out with greater solemnity the

rule, "When the House shall adjourn every member shall stand in place until the President pass him."

The events of the following days of the convention were selected for dramatization:

May 28—Report of Committee on Rules.

May 29—Presentation of Virginia's Plan by Randolph.

May 30—Discussion of the first proposition of the Virginia Plan. Correction of the Articles of Confederation.

May 31—Discussion of the third resolution of the Virginia Plan, that the National Legislature ought to consist of two branches.

June 1—The seventh resolution of Randolph's Plan, that a national executive be instituted to be chosen by the National Legislature for the term of ———.

August 8—The debate on the slavery question.

September 17—The signing of the Constitution. Delegates' opinions of the Constitution. Reading of Franklin's speech by Mr. Wilson. Franklin tries to get Randolph to sign. Franklin's final observation of the convention.

Not only may these types of exercises be used, but in the lower grades; in fact, throughout the elementary school, the teacher should *read* to the children from the sources. Even in these grades an effort should be made to familiarize the pupils with some of the interesting facts about the person who wrote the record as well as the record. "The ordinary child in reading the ordinary book gets no idea at all as to where or how or from whom the author got the facts stated or the pictures used. He may never inquire about these things. Nevertheless, the teacher sooner or later should cause him to inquire; and it will certainly increase his interest in the subject presented and promote his general intelligence to know something of the sources of information."⁵ If the teacher wishes to present the everyday life of the Greeks, she can turn to Hesiod's *Works and Days*. From this reading she can soon bring her class into a realistic atmosphere of country people and country life in 700 B. C. Similarly in connection with the study of early German life she may use Tacitus for a comparative study of the Romans and the Germans. Likewise, Charlemagne may become a real person by using Eginhard's *Life of Charlemagne*. If the teacher wishes to show the children how the monks lived and what they hoped to accomplish, she will find the rules of Saint Benedict and the Life of Saint Columban most helpful.

Although many think that the greater part of the history taught in the elementary school must be that which pupils get from a textbook, there is for those who do not agree much available source material.

¹ Fling and Caldwell, *Studies in European History*, pp. 9-10.

² Johnson, Henry, *Teaching of History*, p. 75.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

⁴ Old South Leaflet, Vol. 3, No. 53.

⁵ Wayland, John W., *How to Teach American History*, p. 251.

Professional Meetings

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

President, Bessie L. Pierce, Department of History, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.

Vice-President, R. O. Hughes, Vice-Principal, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Secretary-Treasurer, Edgar Dawson, Department of Political Science, Hunter College, New York, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretary, Mary V. Carney, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn.

In connection with the annual meeting of the National Education Association, which is to be held in Philadelphia this year from June 28th to July 5th, a session has been planned for the National Council for the Social Studies. It is hoped that every member of the National Council and all others who are interested will plan to attend this session. The date assigned is Monday, June 28th, at 2 P. M. The place is yet to be determined, but will appear in the regular bulletins issued by the N. E. A. Following is the program that has been arranged:

Making the Contributions of the Social Studies Effective

(How should the social studies benefit our pupils? Are they doing what they ought? How can they do their work better?)

Four twenty-minute papers or discussions by:

1. A State Superintendent,
Dr. A. B. Meredith, State Commissioner of Education,
Hartford, Conn.
2. A College Professor,
Mrs. Anna L. Lingelbach, Professor of History,
Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

3. A Secondary School Principal,
Professor Charles C. Tillinghast, Principal,
Horace Mann School for Boys, New York, N. Y.

4. A Classroom Teacher,
Professor Edgar C. Bye, Head of the Department of
Social Studies, Coatesville, Pa.

General Discussion,

Opened by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, State Director of
Social Studies, Harrisburg, Pa.

SOUTH CENTRAL PENNSYLVANIA COUNCIL

The second meeting of the South Central Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies was held in Harrisburg, March 19, 1926. Through the influence of Dr. C. H. Garwood, Superintendent of the Harrisburg schools, Dr. D. C. Knowlton, of Columbia University, came to this city to make a survey of the social studies in the high schools. In a general session, Friday afternoon, Dr. Knowlton gave the results of his survey and left helpful suggestions with the teachers. In the evening meeting he delivered an address on *Integration in History Teaching*, followed by a round-table discussion, led by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, Director of Social Studies, Pennsylvania State Department of Education.

Saturday morning Dr. Knowlton's instructive address, *Making History Graphic*, was made more forceful with the use of pictures and problems taken from his own classroom.

The business meeting was called to order by the President, Dr. Roscoe Bowman. This was the regular time for the election of officers and those of the preceding year, Dr. Roscoe Bowman, president; Mrs. Harriet Stewart, vice-president, and Mrs. Myrtle Saul Smith, secretary and treasurer, were re-elected. The constitution of the organization was read and adopted. Some plans for the fall meeting were discussed.

SPECIAL ANNOUNCEMENT to Instructors of Training Classes for History Teachers in Summer Schools

To introduce THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to new and prospective teachers a special offer is made to instructors and students of Training Courses in the Summer Schools.

For the Sum of Two Dollars

each member of a training class, not already a subscriber, will be given

1. A year's subscription (eight numbers) to THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, beginning with April, 1926, or October, 1926.
2. A copy of the Report of the History Inquiry, by Prof. Edgar Dawson.
3. A copy of the Report on Experimental Curricula in the Social Studies, by Prof. J. M. Gambrill.
4. A packet of Illustrated Topics and Outline Maps published by McKinley Publishing Co.

NOTE—Items 2, 3, 4, may be sent to the class as a whole at the summer address, and THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK will be mailed to individuals at their permanent addresses.

McKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

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PHILADELPHIA

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY

THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912 of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1926.

County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING Co., 1623 Ranstead St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, 6901 Germantown Ave., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

Managing Editor, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, 6901 Germantown Ave., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

Business Manager, ALFRED C. WILLITS, 110 W. Johnson St., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

2. That the owners are (give names and addresses of individual owners, or, if a corporation, give its name and the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 per cent. or more of the total amount of stock).

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5. That the average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the six months preceding the date shown above is.....

(This information is required from daily publications only).

ALFRED C. WILLITS,

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 18th day of March, 1926.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

Correspondence

Teacher Improvement Sheet

EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

I am enclosing a copy of a "Teacher Improvement Sheet," which we use in our work in history, with the thought that you may possibly wish to publish it in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK. It should be useful to other persons who are struggling with the problem of preparing teachers of history for the public schools. I also believe that any teacher could take this sheet and by a careful and honest study of it in comparison with his own actual performance get much good out of it.

It is our custom to hand a copy of the improvement sheet to each student in our classes in the special method of history teaching, and to go over it in detail for the purpose of showing precisely what points will be considered by the critic teacher when the student goes to practice. The supervising teacher in the training school also uses this sheet as a guide in her control of the student's performance as a pupil-teacher.

F. S. BOGARDUS,

Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, Ind.

HISTORY IN THE ELEVENTH GRADE
Assignment

1. Did the assignment make clear what written work was required?
2. Did the assignment make clear what sources and maps are to be used?
3. Did the assignment make clear what use is to be made of the text?
4. Did the assignment make clear what problem is to be solved?

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

Summer Session

June 28 - August 6
1926

Liberal Arts
Teachers' College
Library School
(For High School Librarians)
Business Administration
Oratory
Fine Arts

For Teachers of the Social Sciences.

Special Curriculum

under direction of
School of Citizenship and
Public Affairs

BULLETIN ON REQUEST

Director Summer Session

Syracuse University
Syracuse, N. Y.

Review

1. Was a summary of previous lesson called for?
2. Were proper corrections made? Subject matter? English?

Lesson

1. Was a proper distribution of time between different parts of recitation made?
2. Was a proper use of maps, charts, tablets, pictures, graphs, and sources made?
3. Was the most appropriate form used? (Inductive, source, textbook, socialized, etc.)
4. Was there proper proportion of fact and thought questions?
5. Was there a specific aim for the lesson?
6. Was the time relation looked after?
7. Was the place relation looked after?
8. Was the causal relation looked after?
9. Were comparisons made to get likeness and difference?
10. Was the subject properly placed in its line of development?
11. Did biography receive the proper amount and kind of attention?
12. Was a proper use of collateral reading and source material made?
13. Was there any correlation with other studies?
14. Were connections made with conditions and problems of today?
15. Was the lesson related to the pupils' interests?
16. Was the textbook properly used? (for reference and facts).
17. Was a summary made?
18. Was there some critical examination of accounts of different authors?
19. Were pupils working out problems by use of the library?

Miscellaneous

1. Did the teacher assume knowledge of elementary phases of the subject on the part of the pupils?
2. Was there evidence that some kind of synthesis of the subject was to be required?
3. Was the lesson pitched upon a more difficult plane than is in use in the eighth and ninth grades? In what respect?
4. Did the recitation help to develop a socialized attitude?
5. Did the recitation tend to develop a habit of looking for the evidence and carefully weighing it before expressing a judgment?
6. Was there a definite advance in knowledge and understanding of historical facts?
7. Did the recitation tend toward causing pupils to like history?
8. Did the teacher use correct English?
9. Did the teacher insist on the use of correct English by members of the class?
10. Did the teacher allow the discussion to wander away from the subject of the lesson?
11. Was the teacher's voice agreeable in tone and well modulated?

The Course in Ancient and Medieval History

EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

The question of a change in text in the first year history course in Washington was the reason for the preparation of this statement. I think that the problem is the one really serious difficulty in the high school history teacher's program. I have no idea that a real rearrangement of the courses is possible at this time, but I am convinced that the present program is impossible. If you can use this statement in any way that may stimulate discussion and consideration of the course, do so.

Very sincerely yours,

EDMUND S. NOYES.

Central High School, Washington, D. C.

The most difficult teaching problem of the new course in history is, undoubtedly, the course in Ancient and Medieval History now in the first year of the high school course. This difficulty is largely due to the extent of the course. It is an appalling task to try to carry a class of first year pupils from the Neandertal Man to Louis XIV. Besides the impossible extent of the course, the novelty of the problems presented make the course incomprehensible to such pupils. At the end of the year the minds of such pupils show that they have been both under-exposed and under-developed. The kaleidoscopic shift from Stone Age to Ancient Egypt, to the Ancient East, to the Aegeans, to Greece, to Rome, with Hebrews, Phoenicians, Hittites, and Carthaginians tacked into the picture on the way is enough to confuse and muddle heads older than 14 years.

It was obviously necessary to do something to change the old college preparatory course in Greek and Roman History. The first attempts were not much more than putting an Egyptian and Babylonian head on the old Greek History and adding a Medieval tail to the Roman part. This proved unsatisfactory, and the second crop were specially written manuals on the History of Ancient, of Medieval, or Early Civilization, or similar phrasing of the same idea. Without raising the question as to whether or not that is history or archaeology or sociology or something else, it inevitably resulted in the text becoming a series of broad generalizations with some examples to illustrate the principle. Such suppression of detail leads to an account of Miltiades and the battle of Marathon in seven lines. The practical result is very much like simplifying geometry by leaving out everything except the propositions.

It is a long time ago that Professor Robinson told us that simplification of history was secured by making it particular and concrete, rather than general and vague. A complete or thorough presentation of history is obviously impossible in such a course, and unnecessary, too. What is desired is a real appreciation of what men did in the past and how they did it. For such a purpose it is much better to give a series of vivid, accurate pictures rather than a strip of moving picture film run so rapidly that it is only a blur. Such pictures, to be definite, must for pupils of this school age be the great persons and events of history rather than explanations and generalizations. The concrete account of person or event should be explained, but I doubt the value of teaching explanations and interpretations without the facts.

It is a good while ago that someone said at a meeting of the American Historical Association that about the time the colleges threw out the course in the Philosophy of History the high schools put it in. It is nearer the truth to say that the high school course in history has come back nearly to the situation of about 1890, when General History was commonly taught in the schools. The new course is different in that it begins with pre-historic man, instead of Ancient Egypt, and stops at about 1700, instead of coming to within 15 years of the student. This new General History is unquestionably better than the old Swinton or Myers courses as Breasted, Botsford, Webster and the rest are undoubtedly better historians and the old lists of kings have disappeared. But has the substitution of institutional generalizations been a good trade for the old, hard facts, dry as they were! For the boy or girl it is an inexcusable cheat to replace a Louis or a Charles with absolute monarch. High school history ought to be an interpretation of facts, but not interpretation minus the facts.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

History of Art

- The History of American Sculpture.* By Lorado Taft. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. 604 pp. \$6.50.
- Famous Sculptors of America.* By J. Walker McSpadden. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1924. 377 pp. \$3.50.
- American Colonial Architecture.* By Joseph Jackson. David McKay Company, Philadelphia, 1924. 228 pp. \$2.00.
- The American Wing.* By R. T. H. Halsey and Charles O. Cornelius. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, 1924. 283 pp. \$1.50. (Paper)
- A Guide to the Paintings in the Permanent Collection.* Art Institute of Chicago, 1925. 171 pp. 50c. (Paper)
- The World of Roerich.* By Nina Selivanova. 125 pp. \$1.75; *Adamant.* By Nicholas Roerich. 141 pp. \$1.50; *Roerich.* 13 pp., 63 illustrations in half-tone. \$1.50. All published by Corona Mundi International Art Center, New York, 1924.

IN THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for May, 1925, a review article entitled "The History of Art and the History of Civilization" called attention to the possibilities of a wider use of cultural history in connection with social history, and to the signs of growing interest in the fine arts in America, among them a remarkable output of books. Brief comment is here offered on a few others of this stream of publications, chiefly dealing with American developments.

Mr. Taft's handsome volume, first published in 1903, has held its place as the most extended history and critical commentary on American sculpture, written largely from original material explored and collected by the author, himself a sculptor of high repute. The new edition seems to involve little revision beyond certain details, but includes a supplementary chapter of fifty pages on the developments of the twenty years that have elapsed since the original publication of the book. This added material is regrettably brief, giving little more than a compact summary of the later fortunes and work of artists previously treated, with paragraphs on the newcomers of the last score of years and just a touch of criticism. Separate bibliographies and index are provided for the new material. The number of illustrations is now 116, many of them occupying the full page of seven by nine inches. The volume remains the leading work in the field, but it is to be hoped that author and publishers will soon give us a more radical revision in one synthesis representing the perspective of today and tracing the currents of development in relation to each other and to contemporary conditions.

Mr. McSpadden's *Famous Painters of America* (1907-1916) was frankly a journalistic biographical account of fourteen painters, "in no sense a discussion of art," and his *Famous Sculptors of America* is prefaced with a similar disavowal of pretence to art criticism in its biographical stories of ten men and four women. He declares himself indebted "most of all" for his material to his interviews and conversations with the sculptors themselves. His subjects are Ward, Saint Gaudens, MacMonnies, French, Bartlett, Barnard, Borglum, Rhind, Fraser, MacNeil, Harriet Hosmer, Anna Hyatt, Janet Scudder, Bessie Potter Vonnob. Many notable recent sculptors are thus omitted, and the author seems to have a curious misunderstanding of the connotation of "modern school." The value and limitations of the book are thus apparent. It provides for the general reader or student interested in personalities and biographical detail a series of entertaining narratives, chatty, anecdotal, lively with incident. There are 32 full-page illustrations, and a useful bibliography of nine pages, but there is no index.

Although much has been written about American colonial architecture, the little book by Mr. Jackson is a valuable

addition to the material available. The chapters were first printed in *Building*, of which the author is editor, but they are not at all "journalistic" in the usual sense of that term. Much use has been made of documentary material, including manuscript, and many interesting extracts are printed in the book with indications where to find more. Architecture is considered in relation to social and economic conditions and regional differences are discussed on that basis. The final chapter is devoted to "Builders, Bills, and Books." The author finds that guide books for home builders and carpenters were in use, especially after the great London fire of 1666, and that a number of them were brought over to America. Mr. Jackson protests that the skyscraper is not the sole architectural contribution of America, that "the interpretative expression given in the American Colonies to the classical revival in the eighteenth century, which is rather loosely called Colonial Architecture, has resulted in the formation of a native style just as individual to this country as is the 'skyscraper.'" His book traces the origins of this style and the circumstances under which it developed. It is a unique feature of the book that architectural design in French colonies is treated, two chapters being allotted to the subject. The forty-eight illustrations, varied and informing, are a valuable feature, and there is a bibliography, and a full index.

The American Wing of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, opened late in 1924, is of high importance to students both of art and of history. Not only are large and valuable collections of furniture, silver, pottery, glass, porcelain, miscellaneous implements, and varied specimens of decorative art brought together for inspection, but entire rooms (drawing rooms, living rooms, kitchens, etc.) have been transferred bodily from old homes in all sections

The Ancient and Historic COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY IN VIRGINIA

FOUNDED 1693

WILLIAMSBURG, VIRGINIA

J. A. C. CHANDLER, President

Co-educational

State Institution

1926 Summer Session

First term: June 14-July 24; second term:

July 24-August 28.

Work leading to A. B., B. S., and M. A. degrees.

The college and its surroundings should appeal to everyone interested in history. It is situated in Williamsburg, the colonial capital of Virginia, and is the Alma Mater of Jefferson, Monroe, Marshall, Tyler, Edmund and Peyton Randolph, Scott, Crittenden, and others of national fame. Associated with Williamsburg are memories of the royal governors (several of which are buried here), of Washington, Patrick Henry, John Randolph, Cornwallis, Lafayette, McClellan, and others.

Situated on the historic peninsula between the York and the James Rivers, seven and fourteen miles respectively from the ancient shrines of Jamestown and Yorktown. Richmond and Fortress Monroe may be reached within an hour's ride by auto, and Washington is but one night's ride by boat. By special arrangement through the History Department excursions will be made to Westover, Shirley, and Brandon.

of the colonies. Thus a number of interiors set up in sequence reproduce the appearance of earlier times. The exhibits are limited entirely to American objects of the colonial, revolutionary, and early national periods. The Museum guide presents an orderly account and inventory, with 107 illustrations, the whole adequately indexed, so that its value is by no means limited to those who can visit the unique collection.

Among the public galleries of paintings in America the Chicago Art Institute is second only to the Metropolitan in New York. The new *Guide* contains, in addition to the catalogue of paintings, a series of illustrated articles with simple, conversational comment on the characteristics of the principal painters and the types of work represented. For this purpose the artists are treated in national "schools"—Italian, Dutch and Flemish, German, British, French, Spanish, American, with a special section on water colors. Modern French painting is well represented, with nearly 30 Monets, probably the largest group by this artist in any one gallery in the country. There is much interesting work by contemporary American artists also.

Nicholas K. Roerich (1874-), a Russian, who has spent much time in America, through an archaeological scholar, a successful administrator, and an effective leader, is very much of the mystic and dreamer, with an imagination of rare power and depth and technical skill of a high order in the art of painting. His richly colored canvases deal largely with the primitive, the mystic, the religious, the symbolic, with a vivid power that even the extremist skeptic, if he have artistic sensibility, will feel deeply. The interest in Roerich's work has led to the establishment of a museum of his painting in New York and to the publication of the three little books under review. *The World of Roerich* is biographical, full of interesting information, but unduly reverent. *Adamant* is a collection of the artist's writings giving some of his views of art and of life with his comments on America. *Roerich* contains, in addition to a list of paintings and brief comment on Roerich's art, reproductions of 63 of his paintings, clear, but losing immensely for want of the original colors.

G.

Pocket Natural History, Numbers 1, 2, 3. By Harold J. Madison. Cleveland Museum of Natural History, Cleveland, Ohio. 1925.

These three little booklets written by Harold L. Madison, Curator of Education, Cleveland Museum of Natural History, are the first of a series of pocket natural histories. They are designed primarily for individuals who desire to know more of the works of nature and primitive man and yet have neither time nor access to the more compendious works on these subjects. *The Trees of Ohio* is just the book to place in the hands of a growing girl or boy, and might not come amiss to the elders as well. The common forms are briefly described, from their leaves, with illustrations of each opposite the description.

Indian Homes goes further afield, carrying one from the Barren Grounds to the Mexican Deserts and showing how the environment has moulded man and his architecture. A series of sixteen small maps show culture areas and the geographic distribution of the various types of primitive dwellings. Then in turn each type of dwelling is described with well-drawn illustrations, showing the increasing complexity of structure from brush shelters and skin tips to the communal dwellings of the Pueblo and Cliff Dweller. A table chart of American Indian Culture, showing characteristic arts, clothing, occupations, transportation, et cetera, of the various regions adds to the value of this guide, and the booklet is rendered even more useful to amateurs because of a brief but well chosen bibliography.

The Mound Builders is perhaps the most interesting of the three. The descriptions of the strange dwellings of the vanished race carry one back more than a century to the work of Caleb Atwater, pioneer scientist in the New Northwest. Drawings of the great Serpent Mounds, photographs of the utensils and human remains found in the

buried Mounds, together with a map of the area in which Mound builders did their hand-work render this booklet of real historic worth.

D. M. FISK.

Columbia University.

John Slidell. By Louis Martin Sears, Durham, N. C., Duke University Press, 1925. 252 pp. \$2.50.

Origins of the Whig Party. By E. Malcolm Carroll. Durham, N. C., Duke University Press, 1925. 260 pp. \$2.50.

Any one who has ambitions in the direction of historical research sooner or later is confronted with the problem of publication costs. Today there is the feeling abroad that publication of the products of research in the historical field is becoming increasingly difficult and expensive. This condition is a serious handicap to many who might otherwise be more active. In view of these difficulties, the inauguration of recent activities at Duke University is an important stimulus to the increasing productivity of historians. The Duke University Press has begun the publication of scholarly works in several fields; the first historical contributions to benefit by this new source of financial aid are the two books herein noted.

Professor Sears faced a very definite problem in writing the life of John Slidell. The available material is decidedly limited; Slidell evidently preserved none of his papers; in fact, there seem to be but two groups of his letters extant; namely, those to Buchanan, covering a period of sixteen years, and a number to James M. Mason, written during the Civil War. Largely from these manuscripts has the story been written; for the rest, newspapers, the *Congressional Globe*, and the reminiscences of Mr. Slidell's daughter sufficed. With these limitations of material the story of Slidell is told and his motives and activities analyzed. The biography is pleasantly written and the reader is struck by the impartial manner in which Professor Sears tackles certain of the problems of Slidell's character. He portrays him as the record shows him and though the resulting picture has flaws, they are those of the subject rather than those of the artist. Criticism may be ventured; the story is not always as complete as it might be, there is considerably more on record of Slidell's interests and activities during the last weeks of Buchanan's administration, and at other periods, than appears in this treatment; bibliography and footnotes do not indicate a very wide research. However, the book is a good portrait, and we well may wish that a number of other studies of the size of this might be undertaken so that there could be gathered up and recorded the scattering clues to characters somewhat obscure.

The question of the origin of the Whig party is a complicated one, which has been bothering those interested in our political history for a long while. Professor Carroll has brought together in his work a well-planned analysis in which he traces the devious process by which the supporters of John Quincy Adams and their successors and associates finally rallied around William Henry Harrison, and relates how a program of national development had to be abandoned for one of expedients. He gives the story of the rise and fall of Adams, Clay, and Webster as leaders and the ultimate sacrifice of them all for a candidate chosen because of his availability. This work as stated above in its general interpretative features has been well thought out, Professor Carroll understands political development and has placed his conclusions at the disposal of those interested. However, the details of the book are not so praiseworthy, they show evidence of hurried writing, paragraphs are not well constructed, points of importance are sometimes obscured, and often groups of incidents are strung together not always in the most effective and coherent manner. But enough of fault-finding; it must not be permitted to overshadow the adequate research and the real grasp of the subject which the book shows. The author has done us all a service in presenting this interpretation of a complicated political alignment.

ROY F. NICHOLS.

University of Pennsylvania.

Municipal Budget-Making. By R. Emmett Taylor. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 1925. Pp. 233. \$2.50.

Mr. Taylor has produced a book which should be of considerable value to students of municipal budget procedure and particularly to those who are engaged in developing a budget system for their own city. As a basis for his volume Mr. Taylor has made a first-hand study of budget methods in a number of important cities scattered all the way from Boston to Los Angeles, and in addition he has had the use of the results of an elaborate questionnaire sent out by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research to about 75 of the larger cities of the country. Both of these sources, together with the existing budget literature, have been relied upon extensively in the preparation of the study and supply, in fact, the substance of the book.

Though other manuals of budget procedure are available, this is the first which affords any extensive analysis of the methods actually in use in the leading cities. In his various chapters Mr. Taylor has as a rule followed the plan of presenting, first, a description of the existing practice in the principal cities, followed by a discussion of the features which he considers desirable or essential in a municipal budget system. Frequently he has illustrated his proposals by model forms or copies of forms used in particular cities. These serve to clarify the discussion and should also be valuable to those undertaking the installation of a budget system.

The book has been arranged to follow the steps in the

budget process in the order in which they inevitably occur. Thus one of the preliminary chapters deals with the necessity of centralized purchasing, salary standardization, and improved accounting as a foundation for the budget. Succeeding chapters treat of procedure in budget-making, the character and classification of budget information, the preparation and revision of the estimates, and the problem of arousing the interest of the voter in the budget. In general, Mr. Taylor has followed the principles which have for some time been accepted by students of the budget. His presentation is clear and his conclusions plainly stated. One seeking a compact yet thorough treatment of the municipal budget problem will do well to examine Mr. Taylor's book.

R. C. ATKINSON.

Columbia University.

Good's School Atlas. By J. Paul Goode. Rand, McNally & Co., New York, 1923. xii, 96, 41 pp. \$4.00. (Abridged ed., \$2.00.)

Hammond's Unabridged Atlas and Gazetteer of the World. C. S. Hammond & Co., New York, 1924. 444 pp. \$12.00. (Leather, 9½ x 13¼.)

The *Goode Atlas* is a proper subject for enthusiasm. Certain foreign works, such as the British *Longmans' New School Atlas* or the German *Diercke Schul-Atlas*, are excellent, but adapted, properly enough, to the special needs of schools in the country of publication and prepared a long time ago. The *Goode Atlas* is planned especially for American schools and colleges; it is new, its maps are physical, political, and economic. Moreover, it is well

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planned and well made. The maps are beautifully clear and simple, not obscured by too much detail, and including enough maps to use a different one for each class of data, embodying in this respect the principle followed by the standard French series by Vidal-Lablache. Color has been carefully considered both for legibility and æsthetic effect, and with real success, while the significance of the colors has been preserved by a consistent plan throughout. Professor Goode's projections deserve a special word of commendation. The familiar Mercator projection, made for mariners and indispensable in navigation, grotesquely distorts shape and area, and in its place this atlas uses with immense advantage the "interrupted homolographic" devised by the author in 1916 as a modification of Mollweide's homolographic projection of 1805. Other projections are employed for different types of map to display to best advantage the particular class of facts to be exploited. Scales have also been carefully planned so as to avoid as far as possible the usual confusion about comparative sizes of continents and countries. All measures are given both in the English and metric systems, arranged on parallel scales with zero points together. There are 96 pages of maps, 9 by 11 inches, covering not only political features, but such data as relief, rainfall, vegetation, temperature, population density, agricultural products, mineral resources, industries, religions, railways, languages, water power, wealth, etc. A very interesting series of contour maps on a scale of one inch to eight miles is given for thirty-seven of the world's great cities and their environs. The material of the entire volume is made easily available for quick reference by an elaborate index of 41 pages of three columns each. The *Goode Atlas* is clearly the best available for American students, and is valuable not only for geography, but for classes in economic and social history and the newer types of civics.

The Hammond *Unabridged Atlas* is one of the best of its type. The work of the German map-makers is still unequalled, but the 271 pages of maps in this atlas are superior as American maps go, being exceptionally clear in type and general effect. To the United States is allotted 131 pages, to the rest of the world 140 pages, comprising general and regional maps, countries, and sections, with double-page maps for practically all the American States, and in some cases four to eight pages of maps for larger states. These state maps show steam and electric railways, main and connecting motor highways, oil, gas, and some mineral deposits; mountains and often peak heights are also indicated, but there are curious exceptions, and it is on the side of physical maps that the atlas is weakest. The motor roads are made too prominent for most users of such an atlas. Large scale maps are provided for every part of the world, with special maps for important island groups and inserts to show in detail the environs of many large cities. The world as a whole is shown only on the Mercator projection, and there is little or no attempt to give concepts of comparative areas and form through uniform scales or varying projections, doubtless because the editors believe that users of such an atlas are usually interested in location chiefly and desire always the largest scale feasible. In addition to the maps and the 123 pages of index, there are such features as a parcel post map and guide, federal reserve districts map, lists of cities of the United States with population, and a 32-page "Descriptive Gazetteer of the World." This Gazetteer is useful for its pictures, statistics, and summaries of geographic and economic data, but the space devoted to governments is almost a total waste, the accounts being so condensed as to be often seriously misleading or meaningless. The *Unabridged Atlas* is a useful work of reference for the school library.

G.

A History of the Pharaohs. Volume I, The First Eleven Dynasties. By Arthur Weigall. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1925. XV, 321 pp. \$6.00.

Mr. Weigall has embarked upon the daring venture of addressing two audiences quite distinct in knowledge

though not necessarily in interest. For the specialist the author hopes to add some contributions to the study of Egyptology, while for the layman he essays the task of conducting him behind the scenes and of revealing to him the inner workings of the profession. Certainly, Mr. Weigall is eminently successful in raising problems, introducing new evidence, and propounding novel answers to difficult questions. The specialist will have much to think over. On the basis of a reconstruction of the Palermo Stone Annals the author ventures to assign definite dates and lengths to the reigns of the kings who lived in the period of 750 years after the accession of Menes to the throne, a date fixed at 3407 B. C. by Mr. Weigall. 4241 B. C. was not date of the inception of the calendar. This really occurred about 3400 B. C. in the reign of Menes. The earlier date is rendered untenable because the change of calendar from the Mesore to the Thoth year (about 1767 B. C.) entirely destroys the calculations based on the Sothic cycle. The New Years in Egypt began on October 20-21, instead of the usually assigned date of June 17-18. On the basis of his new chronological reconstruction Weigall dates the departure of Abraham from Egypt at about 2111 B. C. The treatment of the dynasties before Menes is provocative of thought even though any theory advanced cannot hope for adequate evidence to support its claim for acceptance. There is no space here to describe further other facts, statements, and hypotheses which are of interest to the specialist. Mr. Weigall, however, is not so successful in arousing the interest of the layman of ordinary intelligence.

To be sure, there are helpful charts, excellent illustrations, and many source quotations to enliven his interest. But the lay reader must almost inevitably get the impression that Egyptology is a study and a field which must be cultivated long and thoroughly before any rich harvest can be gathered. The volume is recommended for purchase by college and university libraries.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

My Apprenticeship, by Beatrice Webb (Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1926. xiii, 442 pp. \$6.00), is a fascinating story of the formative years of one of England's most distinguished students of social and industrial problems. Beginning with a description of the Victorian world into which she was born, Mrs. Webb traces the story of her life up to the time of her marriage in 1892. The passionate search for a creed, the acquisition of a craft, and the painstaking methods employed in carrying on her work are described in fullest detail. No less important are the intimate pen pictures which she paints of English society in the 'eighties and of some of the prominent intellectuals—of Spencer, Huxley, Galton, Morley, and others—who in her young womanhood occupied the center of the stage. Any person who is troubled with religious perplexities will find solace in her chapter entitled, "In Search of a Creed," for Mrs. Webb, like many another, passed all the way from revealed religion to agnosticism to mysticism and a very great dependence on prayer. Chapter IV, in which the two great controversies of the 'eighties and 'nineties, namely, poverty and the practicability and desirability of political and industrial democracy, are discussed, is especially illuminating.

A goodly proportion of the material is drawn from the author's manuscript diary, but this in no way detracts from the vividness or interest of the tale. The book is a striking and, indeed, dramatic account of how a woman, born into bourgeois circles and destined by environment to follow in the footsteps of her predecessors, emancipated herself and worked out her own philosophy of life. This stimulating volume deserves to be widely read.

Students interested in local history and, more particularly, in the history of the post-Civil War South, will do well to read William Kenneth Boyd's *The Story of Dur-*

ham, *City of the New South* (Duke University Press, Durham, North Carolina, 1925. xi, 345 pp. \$3.00). After briefly describing the physiographic influences and the early settlements of Durham and its environs, Professor Boyd traces in considerable detail the development of the industrial, social, and political institutions of Durham. He shows how from a small hamlet Durham, in the course of half a century, became a flourishing industrial city of 50,000 people, comparatively free from the spirit of persecution, ostracism, and racial hatreds. Chapters IV and V on the tobacco industry are especially informing to the student of economic history. Chapter XIV indicates the great progress made by the negro in one of the South's leading industrial communities. An appendix summarizes the notable benefaction of the late James B. Duke to Duke University. The book is a model for those who write local history.

Those interested in military history will find Mrs. Dunbar Rowland's *Andrew Jackson's Campaign Against the British, or The Mississippi Territory in the War of 1812* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xvii, 424 pp. \$3.50) particularly valuable. In penning this volume Mrs. Rowland has sought first to show the part played by the Mississippi soldiery in Jackson's coast campaign. In the past historians, in her opinion, have failed to give this military episode a proper setting. In other words, they have stressed the battle of New Orleans to the neglect of the significant engagements fought in Mississippi territory. In the second place, and more important, she has stressed the influence of American nationalism on Jackson's activities during this period. The volume is based in large measure on original sources collected by the Mississippi Historical Society.

Professor William Stearns Davis has added another book to the long list of manuals on Roman social life in the publication of *A Day in Old Rome* (Allyn and Bacon, New York, 1925. xxiv, 482 pp.). He selects the year 134

A. D. as the date of a visit of a hypothetical person whose impressions and experiences of old Rome constitute the substance of this volume. The merit of the book lies in the attractive style of the author, and it is a delight to read through the pages without encountering those abrupt and disquieting transitions so often found in books of this character. The volume contains illustrations and an index, but lacks maps and bibliography. The book is recommended for collateral reading in high school and college courses in Ancient History.

Those who enjoy exhibitions of mental gymnastics, loose thinking, and rhetorical acroplaning should read Thomas Nixon Carver's volume, entitled, *The Present Economic Revolution in the United States* (Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1925. viii, 270 pp. \$2.50). According to Professor Carver capitalism and the capitalist system will alone save the world from disaster. Any other form of social and industrial organization is unthinkable. Above all, Bolshevism and pacifism are cowardly and to be abhorred. Everybody in the United States is fast becoming a capitalist. Labor especially is abandoning its fight against capital and is itself becoming capitalistic, as is evident from the rapid growth of savings deposits, labor ownership of corporation stock, and the growth of labor banks. Class consciousness and class conflicts have all but disappeared. How could they possibly continue in a country like the United States, where our ideals "are not materialistic" and where everything is done in accordance with the "noble ideal of equality under liberty"? America is prosperous because it is capitalistic and because "we are seeking the Kingdom of God and His righteousness...." Any one who fails to agree with this general statement is a moron or a hair-brained radical. If the reader has patience to go on to the end he will discover that Professor Carver frankly expresses the fervid hope that there is no hint of pessimism in the tone of the volume under review.

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Clearness, brevity, and quality of content feature Professor Clive Day's *History of Commerce in the United States* (Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1925. vi, 394 pp. \$1.80). Six chapters are devoted to the colonial period, nine to the middle period (1789-1860), ten to the period 1860-1914, and one to the commerce of the United States from 1914 to 1920. About one-third of the content of the book is taken almost verbatim from the author's general *History of Commerce*. The remainder, dealing for the most part with the domestic trade, is new material. The value of the book is greatly enhanced by the large number of well-chosen illustrations, by the chapter bibliographies, and especially by the inclusion of questions and research topics, which are certain to aid both teacher and student. Greater use, however, might have been made of graphs. Every high school boy and girl should have access to this volume.

Any one interested in following the story of a distinguished American family should read the late Gaillard Hunt's *Israel, Elihu, and Cadwallader Washburn, A Chapter in American Biography* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925. vi, 397 pp. \$3.50). In 1809, Israel Washburn, a school teacher, settled down in the town of Livermore, Maine. Three years later he married Martha Benjamin; eleven children, eight boys and three girls, were born to them, but one of the boys died in infancy. When Mr. Hunt began the preparation of the volume under review he intended to include sketches of the seven sons. When the World War broke out material on all seven had been collected and the manuscript on four of them prepared. During the war the work was put aside, with the result that the manuscript on William Drew Washburn was lost. Mr. Hunt then thought it advisable to publish the volume in its present form. Consequently, it contains sketches of only Israel, Elihu, and Cadwallader. All became members of Congress, Israel Governor of Maine, Cadwallader Governor of Wisconsin, and Elihu Minister to France and Secretary of State. Mr. Hunt has drawn heavily upon letters and diaries and the volume, therefore, gives us a number of interesting sidelights on the period from 1800 to 1870.

The second volume of the *Records of the Moravians in North Carolina* (North Carolina Historical Commission, Raleigh, 1925. viii, 515-973 pp.), edited by Adelaide L. Fries, Archivist of the Moravian Church in America, Southern Province, contains numerous papers belonging to the period covered by the first volume, namely, 1752-1771, an outline history of the colonial currency of North Carolina, editorial sketches of the Wright and Richmond Court Houses, where the business of Surry County was transacted from 1771 to 1789; numerous diaries, minute books, etc., which give us many intimate glimpses of North Carolina life both before and during the Revolution; and the all-important Bagge papers relating directly to the Revolution itself. The illustrations, the editorial comment, and the completeness of the index add to the value of the work.

The Early Life and Letters of Cavour, 1810-1848 (Oxford University Press, London, 1925. xix, 384 pp.), by A. J. Whyte, is the story of the famous Italian statesman's pre-political life. It is based on hundreds of Cavour's letters, his diary, his published articles, and on the early files of his newspaper, *Il Risorgimento*. His writings cover a wide range of subjects, including agriculture, stock-raising, industrial undertakings, politics, international relations, religion, machinery, science, gambling, social reform, gossip, and social intrigue, and affairs of the heart. He was no idealist and appears to have had

little leaning toward art. One is also impressed at his astonishing mental and physical energy. He was an omnivorous reader and a keen observer who expressed himself clearly and without oratorical flourish. Mr. Whyte has done a first-class piece of work and the English-speaking world is under obligations to him for making available hitherto unpublished material.

Breckinridge Long, former Assistant Secretary of State during Wilson's administration, has written a book which he calls *The Genesis of the Constitution of the United States of America* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. 260 pp.). In it he sets forth the various constitutions and fundamental laws extant in the colonies before the Philadelphia Convention of 1787, together with a number of proposed plans for union, and endeavors to trace phrase by phrase the influence of these documents upon the final product of the Convention's labor. Whether such a procedure is worth while or not is a moot question; if it is, Mr. Long has made a contribution to American history. At any rate, Mr. Long has written a book.—S. C. W.

John H. Taber's *The Story of the 168th Infantry* (The State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City, 1925. Vol. I, xvi, 397 pp.; Vol. II, vii, 421 pp.) adds two more fat volumes to the growing list of America's regimental histories. These volumes, not unlike many of their predecessors, are profusely illustrated and contain a detailed account of the activities of one of the mid-West's best-known regiments. Not only do they afford a mass of material for the student of military affairs, but they are interesting reading for any one who desires reading of this sort. Volume II contains a complete roster of the regiment.

The word "sergeancy" in Professor A. P. Evans' review of *A Knight's Life in the Days of Chivalry*, by W. C. Meller, which appeared in the March, 1926, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, should have read "sergeanty."—H. J. C.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from February 27 to March 27, 1926

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- De Lue, Willard. The story of Walpole [Massachusetts], 1724-1924. Walpole, Mass.: Town of Walpole. 381 pp. (8 pp. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Hart, Albert B., and Schuyler, W. M., editors. The American Yearbook for the year 1925. N. Y.: Macmillan. 1193 pp. \$7.50.
- Lewis, Thomas. The Fairfax line; Thomas Lewis's journal of 1746. Harrisonburg, Va.: John W. Wayland, Box 307. 97 pp. \$1.50.
- Louhi, E. A. The Delaware Finns, or The first permanent settlements in Pennsylvania, Delaware [etc.]. N. Y.: Chas. W. Clark Co., 235 W. 23d St. 331 pp. \$4.75.
- Plumer, William, Jr. The Missouri Compromises and presidential policies, 1820-1825, from the letters of William Plumer, representative from New Hampshire. St. Louis, Mo.: Mo. Hist. Soc. 166 pp. \$3.00.
- Rawlings, Mary. The Albemarle of other days [local history]. Charlottesville, Va.: The Michie Co. 146 pp. \$1.20.
- Rowland, Eron Rowland. Andrew Jackson's campaign against the British. N. Y.: Macmillan. 439 pp. \$3.50.
- Stuart, Granville. Forty years on the frontier. 2 vols. Cleveland, O.: Arthur H. Clark Co. \$12.50.
- Sullivan, Mark. Our times: The United States, 1900-1925. Vol. I. The turn of the century, 1900-1904. N. Y.: Scribner. 628 pp. \$5.00.
- Usher, Roland G. The rise of the American people. Garden City, N. Y.: Garden City Pub. Co. 413 pp. \$1.00.

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- Gibbs, W. J. R. *English history notes; from the earliest times to the outbreak of the great war*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 243 pp. \$1.50.
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- Locarno Conference, The, October 5-16, 1925. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 75 pp. 5 cents.
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- Whitehead, Lawrence E. *Memoirs of the world war*. St. Louis, Mo.: Stewart Scott Co., 312 Chestnut St. 61 pp.

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BIOGRAPHY

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- Barrows, D. P., and Barrows, Thos. N. *Government in California*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 68 pp. 75 cents.
- Conover, Milton. *Working manual of civics*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 95 pp. 75 cents.

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- The Ancient Caravan Trade Routes. H. E. Phillips (*English Review*, March).
- Trial by Ordeal. W. G. Aitchison Robertson (*Juridical Review*, March).
- The Parliamentary Regime in France. Raymond Poincaré (*English Review*, March).
- Electoral Systems and Reforms in France. Philip Carr (*Contemporary Review*, March).
- The Early History of the Saxons as a Study of German Social Origins. James W. Thompson (*American Journal of Sociology*, March).
- Some Causes of the Reformation. A. F. Pollard (*Churchman*, January).
- Francis Xavier. David Hannay (*Blackwood's*, April).
- The Legal Position of Foreigners in Soviet Russia. Leo Zaitzeff (*Michigan Law Review*, March).
- A Soviet Congress. Maj. Thomas C. Lonergan (*Infantry Journal*, March).
- The Political Basis of Polish-Soviet Economic Relations. W. Fabierkiewicz (*Poland*, April).
- Economic Poland since 1914. Edwin W. Kemmerer (*Poland*, April).
- Albania. W. F. Stirling (*Nineteenth Century*, April).
- The "Kings" of Latvia. William S. Wilson (*Nineteenth Century*, April).
- The Saloniki Dispute. Hamilton F. Armstrong (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
- Europe and the Renaissance of Islam. A. E. Price (*Yale Review*, April).
- The Arab World Today. David G. Hogarth (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
- Greece and Greeks. Charles P. Howland (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
- The Greek Dictatorship. William Miller (*Contemporary Review*, March).
- The Civil Wars in China. Capt. G. W. Spoerry (*Infantry Journal*, April).
- Chang Tso-Lin Moves Southward. Capt. W. V. Rattan (*Infantry Journal*, April).
- Japan and Australia. E. L. Presse (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

- A Tragic Chapter in Mexican History. John S. Azcona (*Living Age*, April 10). The conspiracy against Madero.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Great Britain and France in the Near East. Capt. Chisolm D. Brunton (*Fortnightly Review*, April).
The Don Pacifico Incident. W. Baring Pemberton (*Nineteenth Century*, April).
Victoria as Queen and Woman. Ian F. D. Morrow (*London Review of Reviews*, March-April).
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Notes on the Treaty-Making Power. Norman McL. Rogers (*Canadian Historical Review*, March). I. Nova Scotia and the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854; II. An Embassy from Newfoundland, and the Fisheries Convention of 1857.
The Canadian Civil Service, 1867-1880. R. MacGregor Dawson (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
The Opening of the St. Lawrence to American Shipping. George W. Brown (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
The Jews in Palestine. Leonard Stein (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
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GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- Summary of German Submarine Operations in the Various Theatres of War from 1914 to 1918. Capt. A. Gayer (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April).
Cardinal Mercier in Occupied Belgium. Emile Cammaerts (*Fortnightly Review*, April).
New Mexico in the Great War (continued). Rupert F. Asplund (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
Brief History of the Royal Engineers with Cavalry in France during the War, 1914-1918. Col. W. H. Evans (*Royal Engineers Journal*, March).
Hindenberg. T. H. Thomas (*Atlantic Monthly*, April).
The Intimate Papers of Colonel House. Walter Lippmann (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
Eight Years with Wilson. David F. Houston (*World's Work*, April). III. Girding the Nation for War.
The Meaning of the "Dawes Plan." S. Parker Gilbert (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
How the World Court has Functioned. Nicolas Politis (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- The Meeting of the American Historical Association at Ann Arbor. J. F. Jameson (*American Historical Review*, April).
The Persistence of the Westward Movement. John C. Parish (*Yale Review*, April).
The Navigation of Columbus. Capt. J. Menander (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April).
The First Voyage of Amerigo Vespucci, 1497. J. C. Marsh-Edwards (*National Review*, March).
Onate and the Founding of New Mexico (continued). George P. Hammond (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
Fray Marcos de Niza and His Discovery of the Seven Cities of Cibola. Percy M. Baldwin (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
Massachusetts and the Common Law: the Declaration of 1646. Richard B. Morris (*American Historical Review*, April).
Maryland's Religious History. Bernard C. Steiner (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, March).
The Lost Capital of Maryland. Louis W. Reilly (*Commonwealth*, March 17, 24). II. The crown seizes the colony; III. The passing of St. Mary's.
Life of Thomas Johnson, XXII. Edward S. Delaplaine (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, March).

- Early New Jersey Place-Names, II. Cornelius C. Vermeule (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
The Corps of Light Infantry in the Continental Army. John W. Wright (*American Historical Review*, April).
Washington's Headquarters at Coryell's Ferry. Capt. Richmond C. Holcomb (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
The Loyalists of New Jersey in the Revolution (continued). E. Alfred Jones (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
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Early Flour Mills in Indiana. George Branson (*Indiana Magazine of History*, March).
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Ramsay Crooks and the Fur Trade of the Northwest. J. Ward Ruckman (*Minnesota History*, March).
The Significance of the Twin Cities for Minnesota History. Norman S. B. Gras (*Minnesota History*, March).
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The Ohio Canal. George Perkins (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, October). Account of its completion to Chillicothe.
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A Forgotten Factor in American Industrial History. Harvey A. Wooster (*American Economic Review*, March). The New England village general store.
The Canadian-American Frontier during the Rebellion of 1837-1838. Wilson P. Shortridge (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
Andrew Jackson and His Enemies. William E. Dodd (*Century*, April).
Pioneer Struggles for a Colorado Road across the Rockies. L. R. Hafen (*Colorado Magazine*, March).
Russian-American Relations during the Crimean War. Frank A. Golder (*American Historical Review*, April).
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The Presidential Campaign of 1864 in Ohio. Elizabeth F. Yager (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, October).
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The Virgin Islands under American Rule. Donald D. Hoover (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

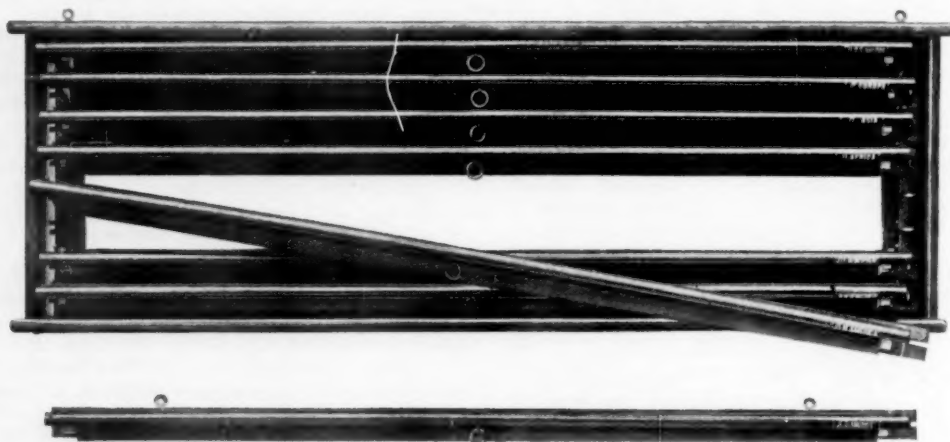
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